

Rural School Management

by Ernest Hilton

PRINCIPAL OF COLLEGE ELEMENTARY SCHOOL
STATE TEACHERS COLLEGE, FREDONIA, N.Y.

AMERICAN BOOK COMPANY
NEW YORK CINCINNATI CHICAGO
BOSTON ATLANTA DALLAS SAN FRANCISCO

COPYRIGHT, 1949, BY
AMERICAN BOOK COMPANY

ALL RIGHTS RESERVED

NO PART OF THIS BOOK PROTECTED BY THE ABOVE
COPYRIGHT MAY BE REPRODUCED IN ANY FORM
WITHOUT WRITTEN PERMISSION OF THE PUBLISHER

F. P. I
HILTON, RURAL SCHOOL MANAGEMENT
MADE IN U.S.A.

TO MY MOTHER

For Many Years a Modern Rural Teacher

PREFACE

Throughout the last two or three decades educators have engaged in more or less desultory argument over the need for specialized professional courses in the preparation of rural teachers. While this intermittent debate has been going on, more than half of the children of America have continued to go to rural schools. Teachers who serve in those schools know that their work is distinctively different from that of city teachers in at least two important respects. (1) Teachers in one-teacher and two-teacher schools must handle several grades in one classroom. This presents unique managerial problems. (2) Rural teachers work in rural communities with rural people. To build curriculums responsive to the needs, interests, and resources of the community and its people, an understanding of rural life is required. Both points have implications for teacher education. They show the need for study by the teachers of rural schools of management problems and of rural society.

Furthermore, these two areas can never be separated neatly. The teacher's work is with children growing up in their environments. For any child, in-school and out-of-school experiences add up to one life. What goes on outside the school in the community and in the larger society of which the community is a part directly touches the lives of the children whose guidance is the teacher's work. If life in school is to have validity and vitality, it must draw upon and relate to the needs of the children and of their society.

This book deals with the problems of rural school management and with the aspects of rural life that bear directly on them. Many of these problems must be viewed in terms of how rural people live and of the conditions with which they deal. In brief, this text seeks to extend consideration of management problems to life beyond the schoolroom walls.

It is hoped that the book will prove helpful to all rural teachers, whose work is both so difficult and so interesting. The work of

rural schools is of significance to urban society as well as to rural society, for the two are interdependent. Rural schools can be very good schools. Indeed, it seems to the writer that no other schools have equally favorable opportunities for developing democratic education. If this book, in some small measure, helps to promote that kind of education for rural children, it will have been worth the effort involved in its preparation.

The contents of this text are based on a check-list analysis made of the rural school management courses in fifty-nine colleges and universities. A similar study was made to discover what topics rural school supervisors believe should be included in such courses. In general, there was encouraging agreement between the two lists. In the opinions of the supervisors, however, greater consideration of the social setting of rural education would be desirable in the rural school management courses.

The writer is indebted to the many college faculty members and rural school supervisors who completed the check-lists. For generous encouragement and wise guidance, thanks are due Professor Alonzo F. Myers, Professor Robert K. Speer, and Professor F. C. Borgeson of the School of Education of New York University, who guided the preliminary study. From faculty members and fellow students who participated in the Columbia University Seminar on Rural Life during the 1945-46 academic year, much inspiration and many new ideas were gained. The encouragement and assistance of many others is gratefully acknowledged: Professor Frank W. Cyr of Teachers College, Columbia University; Dean O. C. Schwiering of the University of Wyoming, who has long supported the development of rural education work at that university, where the writer worked for several years; Professor Hazel Olson, Professor Walter C. Reusser, and other former colleagues at the University of Wyoming; and Professor Cassie Burk and Professor Phil C. Lange of the State Teachers College, Fredonia, New York, who read the manuscript and offered valuable suggestions. Thanks also are due the several state directors of school plant planning who permitted the use of the rural school building plans in Appendix B; and the many publishers who generously permitted quotation of copyrighted material.

ERNEST HILTON

Fredonia, New York

CONTENTS

PART ONE. AN OVERVIEW OF THE RURAL TEACHER'S WORK

CHAPTER	PAGE
I. The Challenge of Rural Teaching	3
Public Education of Vital Importance in a Democracy	3
Importance of the Rural Schools	5
Characteristic Strengths and Weaknesses of Rural Schools	7
The Vital Challenge Offered Teachers by Rural Schools	15
II. An Introduction to Rural America	20
How the Industrial Revolution Altered Rural Life	20
The Land the Nation's Basic Resource	23
Problems of Rural Society	24
A Statement of Policy for Rural America	33

PART TWO. LIVING AND WORKING WITH CHILDREN IN RURAL SCHOOLS

III. Rural Life and Child Development	39
Ways in Which Rural Life Is Favorable to Child Development	39
Ways in Which Rural Life Is Unfavorable to Child Development	42
Implications for Rural Schools in These Advantages and Defects	48

CHAPTER	PAGE
IV. Understanding and Guiding Child Behavior . . .	55
What Is Involved in the Problem of Discipline . . .	55
An Understanding of Children Basic to Intelligent Discipline	58
Practical Suggestions for Establishing and Maintaining Desirable School Discipline	64
V. Planning—An Important Part of the Rural Teacher's Work	74
The Teacher's Whole Philosophy of Education Reflected in Her Planning	74
Advance Planning Needed to Start the Year Successfully	75
Daily Planning a Continuing, Co-operative Responsibility of Teacher and Children	88
VI. Evaluating Child Growth and Development . . .	95
The Measurement and Evaluation Movement Briefly Reviewed	96
General Principles as Guideposts to Modern Evaluation Practices	98
Evaluating Instruments and Procedures of Value to Rural Teachers	103
VII. The Rural Teacher's Records and Reports . . .	114
Need for Simple, Usable Records and Reports . . .	114
The Individual Cumulative Record Folder . . .	116
The Teacher's Responsibility for Certain Administrative Records and Reports	123
The Children's Share in Recording and Reporting School Life	125
The School's Purposes and Concepts of Child Growth Reflected in the Report Cards	126

Contents

ix

CHAPTER	PAGE
VIII. Health and Safety in the Rural School	137
Safe and Healthful School Living the Concern of Teacher, Children, and Parents	138
How Schools Can Help Meet the Children's Indi- vidual Health Needs	150
Homes and Community Reached by Effective School Health Program	153
IX. Instructional Materials, Supplies, and Equipment .	159
Books and Periodicals the Basic Supplies	159
Extensive Use of Audio-Visual Aids by Modern Schools	167
Making the Audio-Visual-Aids Program Serve Sev- eral Schools	172
X. The School Plant and School Housekeeping . . .	175
What Can Be Done to Improve Rural School Build- ings	175
Making Effective Use of Available Facilities . .	180
Effective Management of Routine School House- keeping Tasks	188
 PART THREE. THE CHANGING RURAL COMMUNITY AND THE FUTURE OF THE RURAL SCHOOL	
XI. The Changing Rural Community	195
Importance of the Small Community	195
The Rural Community a Changing Social Unit .	198
The Role of the School in the Community . . .	201
XII. Strengthening School and Community Relation- ships	209
Studying the Community for Insight into Its Strengths and Needs	209

CHAPTER	PAGE
How Children, Teachers, and Parents Share in Community Study	216
Definite Ways in Which the Rural Teacher Can Strengthen School and Community Relations .	217
XIII. The Future of the Rural Schools	228
Steps Necessary to Make Rural Schools Adequate to the Needs of the Times	229
New Goals to Guide Curriculum Development in New Rural Schools	238
Appendix A. Daily Programs for Rural Schools	249
Appendix B. Plans for Rural School Buildings	264
Index	273

Part One

AN OVERVIEW OF THE RURAL TEACHER'S WORK

*Chapters I and II emphasize the social responsibilities
of the schools and give an overview of rural America.*

CHAPTER I

THE CHALLENGE OF RURAL TEACHING

EDUCATION IS ALWAYS a social process, and in a democracy it is charged with significant responsibilities. One of the fundamental facts about teaching is that teaching is work of high social importance. What are the responsibilities of education in a democratic society? The following discussion is necessarily brief, but it seeks to give sharpness and clarity to the meaning of those responsibilities and to point out how large a share of public education rural schools carry. The strengths and weaknesses of the rural schools are reviewed, and, finally, what all this means in terms of the personal challenge in rural teaching is set forth.

Public Education of Vital Importance in a Democracy

Viewed in the long perspective of human history, the United States is a relatively new nation. Yet since early colonial times its people have given much thought and energy to the establishment and maintenance of public schools. Early laws in the New England colonies expressed the conviction that public education was essential to sound community life. In those colonies the need for reading was associated with religious beliefs, and the religious purpose dominated education at that time.

As the colonial period merged into the period of the early republic, however, a new need for public education emerged clearly. The great statesmen who launched the nation as a republic realized that theirs was an experiment in government. They knew that democracy

could endure only when supported by a people able to inform themselves on the issues of the times in which they lived. The writings of many of those early leaders emphasized that education available to all the people was the surest guarantee that the new experiment in human society would succeed.

Today education remains the surest guarantee of democracy. In a very real sense, democratic government continues to be and must always continue to be a kind of experiment. Its strength of purpose, its concern for the general welfare, its effectiveness in adapting public policies to changed conditions must constantly be renewed. It is in this continuing process of supporting and strengthening democracy that the purposes of public education are to be found. In sharing in that process, the individual teacher finds the great challenge of her work.

It is important that teachers sense both the challenge and the responsibilities which are theirs. Only as the individual teacher grasps the meaning of her work in relation to broad, fundamental purposes can she effectively discharge her responsibilities.

Like all social institutions, education reflects the fundamental nature of the society it serves. It is established and supported by society; inevitably it reflects the strengths, the weaknesses, and the values of that society. But education is uniquely different from many other social institutions in that it mirrors not only what is true of society but also the hopes and aspirations of the people as well. The concern of education is never limited to the present alone; it always involves what lies ahead. It builds for a continuously improving society, and it operates always within the context of a changing society.

In very simple terms, this means that public education serves a twofold function. It seeks to maintain and support the democratic way of life by helping children learn the knowledge, the skills, the attitudes, and the ways of behaving which the experience of past generations has proven worth while and good. At the same time, society itself is always changing, and the schools are responsible not only for preserving the cultural heritage but also for assisting in the process of cultural change. In other words, education is concerned not only with the past but also with the present and the future.

A concrete example will serve to clarify this point. A hundred

years ago it was generally believed that the nation's wealth of natural resources was almost limitless. Today it is generally known that the once abundant forests, the endless miles of rich soil, and much of the mineral wealth are seriously depleted. Hence the nation today is properly concerned with ways of conserving its natural resources. The public schools in every state are developing programs of conservation education. Through such programs the schools seek to function effectively in the process of social change—in bringing about a change in public and individual policies—so that unrestrained exploitation will be replaced by sound conservation.

It is important to note, too, that the responsibilities of education are heaviest in times of rapid social change, such as the present. The changing conditions stemming from the Industrial Revolution constantly present new social arrangements in which the basic values of democracy must be reinterpreted. Another example will make this clear.

Democracy rests on a deep belief in the worth and dignity of each human personality. This belief is firmly rooted in enduring religious values. The great documents of democratic thought—among them the Declaration of Independence and the Bill of Rights—give clear expression to it. Yet as society has changed, the question has constantly arisen as to what new guarantees of human worth and dignity are necessary in the new social arrangements. This question will continue to arise so long as human society endures. Education shares with other social institutions the responsibility of working out the answer to it and to other questions that are equally fundamental.

Even casual consideration of such ideas leads to the conclusion that the social responsibilities of education are very great. Free, universal, effective public education can be the most potent force for the support and development of the democratic way of life in a changing world.

Importance of the Rural Schools

It is clear that public education plays a vital role in democratic society. How largely do the *rural schools* share in this role?

The 1940 census reported more than 57,000,000 people, or slightly

over 43 per cent of the national population, as living in rural areas. There were 15,041,289 children five to seventeen years of age in the rural population, and 14,703,957 children of the same age group in the urban population. Statistics for the 1941-42 school term showed a total enrollment of 11,387,612 in public elementary schools and high schools classified as rural, and an enrollment of 13,174,861 in urban schools.¹ Thus, although the number of school-age children and youth was greater in rural than in urban areas, the enrollment was slightly higher in urban schools than in rural schools. This is largely explained by the facts that some rural youth of high school age are enrolled in high schools classified as urban, and proportionately fewer rural children have kindergarten opportunities. Also, proportionately fewer rural youth continue through high school.

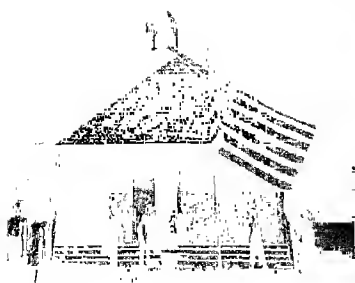
In 1941-42 there were 191,504 rural school buildings and 31,156 urban school buildings in use. The total number of teaching positions, not including those of principals and supervisors, was 455,661 in rural schools and 419,816 in urban schools. In the same year 4,503,081 pupils were transported to schools in 92,516 busses at a total expense of \$92,921,805. About 90 per cent of all pupil transportation is for rural children. Yet transportation of pupils has not meant the passing of one-teacher and two-teacher schools. Data on such schools are limited, but it was estimated at the time of the White House Conference on Rural Education in 1944 that there were 108,000 one-teacher schools and 25,000 two-teacher schools in the United States.² Together they enrolled some 3,500,000 children, and the one-teacher schools alone employed approximately 12.5 per cent of the nation's teachers. Kolb and Brunner have estimated that even when consolidation has reached its maximum point, some 60,000 to 75,000 one-room and two-room schools must remain.³

In considering such data as these, it is necessary to keep in mind the different kinds of "rural schools." Just as people living in towns

¹David T. Bloch, *Statistics of Schools in Urban and Rural Areas, 1941-42*, U. S. Office of Education Circular No. 231, Table 2. Washington: Government Printing Office, 1945.

²See *Proceedings of the White House Conference on Rural Education, 1944*, p. 57.

³J. H. Kolb and Edmund de S. Brunner, *A Study of Rural Society*, 3d edition, p. 455. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Company, 1946.



September Morning

Eva Luoma



A Spring Morning at a Country School

Eva Luoma



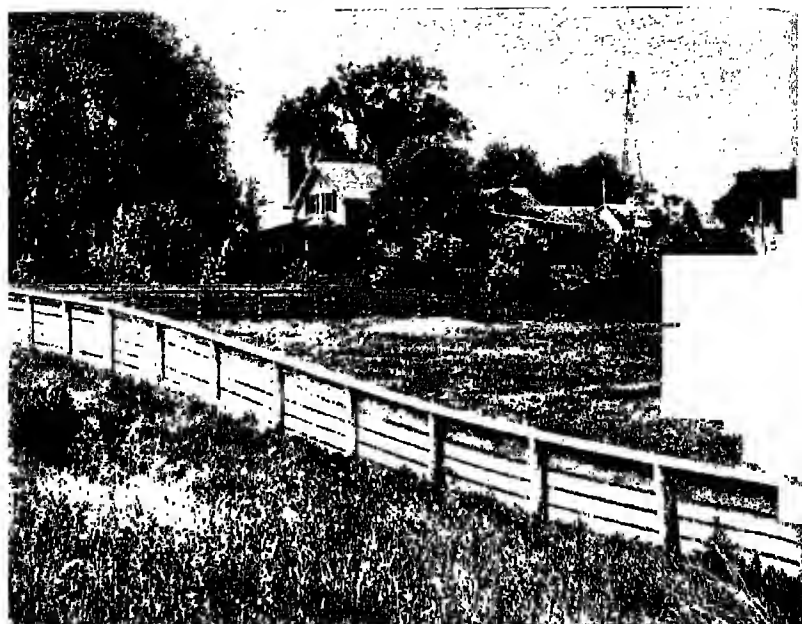
Recess Time Is Play Time

Soil Conservation Service



The May Day Dance at Pine Mountain Settlement School,
Harlan County, Kentucky

Arthur Dodd from Ewing Galloway



Farming Is Both a Way of Living and a Way of Earning a Living



Virginia Village—Typical Rural Service Center of the Farm-Village Community

Rua Luo



Ewing Galloway



Gendreau

A Large Wyoming Sheep Ranch



Ewing Galloway

Valley Farming in Lewis County, New York



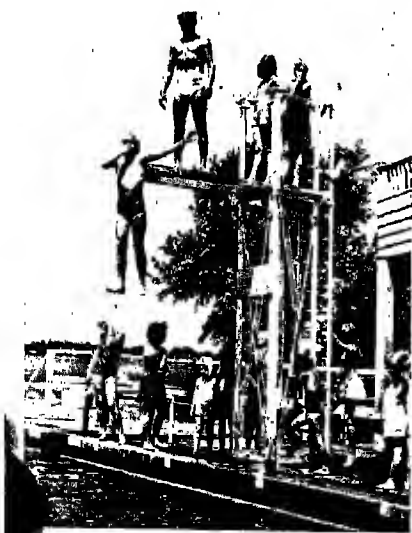
U. S. Public Health Service
The Teacher and the Public Health Nurse
Work Together



U. S. Public Health Service
The Dental Clinic in the Richmond,
Indiana, Schools



U. S. Public Health Service
The Nurse Helps a Parent Understand
a Health Need



Wide World
Recreation Facilities Enrich Rural Com-
munity Living



Eva Luon
Reading Merely for Fun Is Recrea-
tion, Too

of fewer than 2,500 persons are classified as rural, so are schools in all population centers of fewer than 2,500 persons. This is the definition used by the United States Office of Education. It has the merit of pointing out the fact that not only the open-country school but also farm-village and farm-town schools are rural. However, the term *rural school* includes a good many different kinds of schools: open-country one-teacher and two-teacher schools; consolidated, graded schools both in the open country and in villages and towns; small-town schools to which few, if any, farm children go; schools offering six, eight, twelve, or more years of education. Together, these are "the rural schools."

To summarize, this means that more than half of the school-age boys and girls of the nation live in the rural areas, and about half of all children and youth enrolled in public schools attend those classified as rural. It is clear that the rural schools share very largely in the total work of public education, and that the adequacy of rural education must be viewed as of vital concern to the country as a whole.

Characteristic Strengths and Weaknesses of Rural Schools

With so large a part of the nation's education centered in the rural schools, it is pertinent to appraise the strengths and weaknesses of these schools. In recent years a great deal of publicity has been given to the difficulties faced by rural education. It is true these difficulties are real and serious, but it is also true that rural schools have certain significant advantages.

A. 1. *The rural environment itself is richly educative.* It can and does contribute to desirable learning both in and out of school. It is a continuing source of valuable materials and experiences on which rural schools may draw. It is an environment generally favorable to good all-around child growth and development. City environments seem to offer a wider variety of experiences, but through the radio, motion pictures, newspapers, and modern means of travel rural children are beginning to share in the desirable features of city life. More important, in the rural environment children live in close relationship with the world of nature. They have room to play. Their

villages. For some children it means child labor in its worst forms, but for most it is a good experience and is productive of attitudes and habits of industry, co-operation, persistence, and responsibility. These carry over into the school. Through doing useful work the children find a sense of belonging to and contributing to the family life. Modern education is concerned with giving children opportunities to learn the discipline, co-operation, and skills which accompany useful work. Rural education, in this respect, enjoys a unique advantage.

These are the advantages. However, rural schools do labor under some serious handicaps.

B. 1. The administrative structure of rural education is weak. In discussing school administrative units, or districts, it is necessary to distinguish between administrative units and attendance units. The *administrative unit* is the territory or area under the management and control of one school board. The *attendance unit* is the territory or area from which children attend one school. Thus an administrative unit or district may have only one school and hence be a single-attendance unit or district as well; but many administrative units have more than one school and hence contain two or more attendance units.

The administrative unit is the unit for administration and taxation. There are far too many of these units. In 1943-1944 they numbered 111,273.¹ Historically, the local administrative districts were established with one school each, and they were small enough to enable all children to walk to school. Since those district lines were established, however, rural communities have evolved sociologically into larger, village-centered units. The isolation of the farm and farm neighborhood has long since broken down in most places, but in many states the isolated school districts persist.

These administrative units vary greatly in size and wealth. In some states the county is the unit. In still other states, the county serves as such in most respects. Yet there are states with 10,000 or more districts. Thousands of districts are operating schools for only a few children.

Where administrative units are small, many of them do not have

¹United States Office of Education, *Statistics of State School Systems, 1943-1944*, p. 18.

adequate tax resources or school population to develop such services as school supervision, library services, health programs, vocational education, and instructional programs in music and the fine arts. Further, since the districts vary greatly in wealth and in the number of children of school age, they create serious inequalities in educational opportunity. Consolidation of districts has done much to bring about a more adequate education for all children; so, too, has the advance of financial aid to districts from state funds.

For the nation as a whole, however, it remains true that the small rural district is the basic administrative unit, and that far too many districts lack financial resources adequate to provide modern education. The whole administrative structure of rural education, in many states, needs to be brought up to date. It is encouraging to note that in several states this reorganization is in process.

2. Rural schools lack adequate finances. This weakness of rural education is directly related to the obsolete administrative pattern just reviewed. The chief financial support of education is taxation in the local administrative unit. In 1943-1944, about 60 per cent of revenue receipts of all school districts came from that source.¹ In general, the trend today is toward more generous state aid, with financial assistance to local schools from state governments increasing greatly in recent years. This trend, along with the reorganization of administrative units, gives promise of more nearly adequate financial support. On the whole, however, the rural schools of today simply do not have enough money.

A comparison of rural and urban schools shows the results of inadequate financial support. The school term is not so long in rural schools as in urban schools. In 1941-42 it was 181.3 days for urban schools, and 167.2 days for rural schools. The average annual salary of urban teachers the same year was \$2,013; for rural teachers it was \$1,018. The estimated value of school property per pupil in urban schools was \$429; in rural schools it was only \$200. The annual expenditure per pupil in average daily attendance in urban schools was \$114.61; in rural schools it was \$80.44.² Though teachers' salaries have risen sharply since then, the inequality remains.

Thus rural communities generally are less able to support schools

¹United States Office of Education, *op. cit.*, p. 8.

²David T. Blose, *op. cit.*, Table 2.

than are urban centers. Actually they spend significantly less for the support of their schools, yet they have proportionately more children to educate. For decades the wealth of the nation has been concentrating in non-rural areas while the rural birth rates have remained highest.

3. A good many rural schools are too small. The smallness of some rural schools handicaps them. Schools with five children or even fewer find it difficult to develop play experiences and social learning situations. Such schools are expensive to maintain, yet there are a good many of them. A recent survey in one Western state showed that more than half of the one-teacher schools had five pupils or fewer.¹ In schools this small it is unlikely that health services, library services, and the like will be available.

Small high schools share these problems. Classes are often too small for group projects, group discussions, and the important extracurricular activities. The necessity of managing with four or five or six teachers may mean that teachers are assigned subjects in which they are poorly prepared. The curricular offerings are necessarily limited. Some states have developed fairly elaborate programs of directed correspondence study to enrich rural high school offerings, but the possibilities of such work are limited at best.

4. Rural schools do not attract and hold the best teachers. The teacher is of crucial importance in any school. It has been shown that rural teachers receive, on the average, a much lower salary than city teachers do. It is also true that they generally have had less education and less experience and have shorter tenure than any other group of teachers. During the wartime and post-war teacher shortage, many rural schools were taught by teachers with "emergency" certificates. A more accurate term would be "substandard" certificates. Of 69,000 such certificates granted in 1943-1944, about 58,000 were issued to rural teachers.² The number of teachers holding substandard licenses was close to 125,000 in 1946-1947 for the nation as a whole. Factual evidence indicates that this number cannot be reduced significantly for years to come. It is a foregone

¹Ernest Hilton, *Some Problems of Wyoming Country Schools*. Laramie, Wyoming: University of Wyoming School Service Bureau Bulletin, September, 1944, p. 8.

²See *Proceedings of the White House Conference on Rural Education, 1944*, p. 146.

conclusion that the crisis will be most acute in the rural schools, and it is in the rural schools that most of those teachers will continue to serve.

It was reported at the White House Conference on Rural Education in 1944 that nearly 60 per cent of all teachers in one-teacher and two-teacher schools had had less than two years of education beyond high school. Of teachers in three-teacher schools, only 30 per cent had had so little education; in villages under 2,500 population, only 20 per cent; and in towns and cities of over 2,500 population, only 10 per cent.¹ In other words, the more *rural* the school, the less education the teacher had had. This situation was not much better before the war.

While the low salaries paid in rural schools doubtless explain in part why this situation exists, other factors also contribute to the difficulty the rural schools have in securing and holding good teachers. Unsatisfactory living conditions, difficult working conditions, and lack of tenure protection must be mentioned.

5. Rural schools lack adequate supervision. The facts that rural teachers have had less education than urban teachers, that they are younger and have had less experience, and that they change positions frequently all indicate the need for supervision. Rural teachers must work with children of different ages and in different grades. They must teach several, perhaps even all, subjects and also carry on special types of activities which in city schools are handled by special staff members.

In a good many states, the rural schools lack professional supervision and help. In many states the county superintendent is the only official charged with helping teachers in the one-room and two-room schools. In nearly half the states the county superintendent is elected by popular vote. Associated with popular election are such conditions as short tenure in office, low salary, limited opportunity for professional advancement, low professional standards, and the necessity of engaging in political campaigns. Furthermore, elected county superintendents too often have little clerical help and are burdened with administrative duties. The schools they supervise are often isolated, and the roads are poor. DeBoer's study of the county superintendents of South Dakota, for example, showed 67 such

¹*Ibid.*, p. 30.

officials charged with the supervision of 4,041 rural teachers. They averaged only 2.3 visits per year per teacher.¹

It must in fairness be added that, although county superintendents generally are poorly paid, are overworked, and have relatively limited professional education, they do provide much help for rural teachers. They usually bring a good deal of practical wisdom and experience to their work.

Rural supervision has made real progress in some states. New Jersey, with its "helping teachers," is perhaps the outstanding example. In some Southern states the counties sharing in the state-aid program are given additional money to employ rural supervisors. Another promising development is the organization on a co-operative basis of rural school supervision and in-service teacher education programs by state departments of education and teachers' colleges.

6. In some states the education of isolated children is difficult. This is a problem unique to rural education. Children living on isolated farms and ranches, at section points along the railroads in sparsely populated regions, and in the small mining camps are often truly isolated. This is a problem particularly serious in the sparsely settled mountain states of the West, but it is not confined to them.

Various provisions are made for such children. Some states provide by law for payment of board and room for children who must attend school away from home. Some provide for payment for private transportation; some for house rent if the family must move to town for the school term. A few states even maintain dormitories, usually only for high school students. Montana has pioneered in supervised correspondence study programs for isolated elementary school children. Such provisions are not wholly satisfactory, but a completely satisfactory solution of the problem seems impossible.

The Vital Challenge Offered Teachers by Rural Schools

Earlier sections of this chapter have pointed out the fundamental importance of education in a democratic society; the large share of the rural schools in the total task of public education; and the

¹L. DeBoer, "The County Superintendent: His Status in South Dakota," in *The Nation's Schools*, 29 (February, 1942), p. 21.

strengths and weaknesses of rural education today. All of those points have implications for rural teachers—especially for the teacher who seeks a clearer vision of the challenge in her work.

A cornerstone in the faith all good teachers have in their work is the sure knowledge that through their daily tasks they are strengthening and building democracy. This conviction rural teachers share with all other teachers. Indeed, it serves to support a common purpose and a sense of co-operative fellowship with all other teachers. It is important that rural teachers sense this fundamental community of interest and their common membership in the ranks of the teaching profession. The challenge is to work with other teachers, through professional organizations, for better schools.

It is well to recognize the fact that rural teaching has certain unattractive aspects, as have all kinds of work. These disadvantages of rural teaching have been suggested and are generally known. Rural teaching has long paid too little; living conditions for rural teachers are often less than satisfactory; the day-by-day work includes responsibilities which in larger schools fall to special staff members; there is little security of tenure; and the rural schools are too often poorly housed and poorly equipped.

Consideration of these features of rural teaching raises two questions: What causes them? How permanent are they? Fortunately, much study and thought have been given to the problems, and the answers are fairly clear. In general, the causes are the out-dated administrative framework within which rural schools work and the lack of financial support. Thus it follows that the handicaps are not necessarily permanent. As a matter of fact, there has been a great deal of improvement in recent years. The wartime and post-war teacher shortages have served to focus public attention on the schools. There has been a general awakening to the long neglect of rural education, and in many states new salary laws, reorganization of school districts, increased state aid, and more favorable public attitudes have resulted.

It seems safe to predict that in the years ahead there will be even greater gains. For example, there is reasonable hope that the long struggle for financial support of schools by the Federal government will soon be won.

The greatest challenge of the rural school teacher today is to be-

come an effective worker in the battle for better schools. Each teacher can build in the local community public understanding of the steps necessary to better the schools. Each teacher can join her efforts with those of professional leaders and organizations working for improvement. Seldom in the history of the nation have the schools been so much in the public mind as they are today; seldom have opportunities to build solid foundations for better conditions been so challenging. The years just ahead promise to be exciting ones.

It is even more important for rural teachers to realize that rural schools *can* be very good schools. They have many of the characteristics essential to modern education—small groups of children, a close relationship with the homes and the community, and a community setting which is relatively simple and understandable and rich in educational resources. Indeed, many people believe that the rural schools can be the very best schools and that the essential attitudes of democratic citizenship are learned most naturally and most easily in small communities. It is there that human ties are close and friendly, that community life is readily observable and understandable. The rural teacher has a golden opportunity to develop awareness of community life and institutions, to bring community life into the school curriculum, and to build learning experiences outside the schoolroom in the community itself. The rural schools, as has been pointed out, enjoy positions of strategic influence in the communities they serve. For every rural teacher the challenge is to make the school worthy of that position.

In the unregimented, family-like school situation the rural teacher has a favorable setting in which to develop a miniature democratic society, marked by the sharing and exchange of interests, concern for the general welfare, respect for personality, and a balanced acceptance of privileges and responsibilities.

A corollary challenge that faces rural teachers is to extend the awareness and understanding of their pupils to the world beyond their small community. The interrelatedness and interdependence of the whole world is one of the basic realities of the present day. Rural teachers can lead children to see the world as it is and as it may become, and to recognize the place of rural America and their own rural community within that world.

All good teachers everywhere have always known as one of the

chief rewards of teaching the warm, friendly relationships they have with children. Rural teachers work with relatively small groups and can know each child and his home. They can reap a rich harvest of personal reward in the respect and affection which is theirs for the earning. They can count for much in the lives of their pupils.

Many rural teachers feel a personal interest in the question of whether or not their work offers opportunities for professional advancement. The truth is that in many situations such opportunities are limited; but it is worth noting that as rural supervision is extended, many desirable positions will be created. These positions will be filled by teachers who have prepared themselves, through education and experience, for rural school leadership.

Even for the teacher who leaves the rural schools for a city position, rural teaching is a valuable experience. There is no place like a rural school for learning resourcefulness, initiative, and a sure understanding of child growth and development. Many of the nation's great educators started their work in rural schools. There is a challenge in rural teaching, too, for the teacher who leaves the profession to marry and live in rural communities. Rural schools need community leaders who are aware of the school problems, interested in working to solve them, and willing to serve as parent leaders and school board members.

In short, the rural schools today are in very great need of teachers dedicated to rural education and to rural life and, beyond rural life, to the democratic way of life for all people. In return, the schools offer the rich and enduring satisfactions that may be earned by doing well work that is worth doing, and by living and working with children and adults in the friendlier, quieter communities of America. Few other professional positions offer so much.

Summary

Public education is vitally important in a democratic society. It functions, with other social institutions, to support and extend the democratic way of life. Rural schools share largely in the responsibilities of public education, for they enroll about half of all the public school children and employ over half of the nation's teachers.

Rural schools have certain advantages. They are small, and for the most part are set in environments favorable to modern education. Children have work experiences. The processes of community life are simple and understandable. Rural family life generally is sound.

However, serious handicaps of rural schools must also be noted. The persistence of local administrative units too small to support modern schools tends to block progress, and the schools suffer from inadequate financial resources. The smallness of the schools is reflected in narrow curriculum patterns. Rural teachers as a group are poorly paid, are inexperienced, and have had only limited professional education. Supervision is not widely available. It is difficult to provide for isolated children.

The outlook for the future is more hopeful now than for years past. For the rural teacher in the years ahead there will be the challenge to share in the work of building better schools and, as for all teachers at all times, to earn the worth-while rewards that come from working with children.

Questions for Study and Discussion

1. To illustrate how the schools are concerned not only with the past but with the present and the future also, the point was made that modern schools emphasize conservation education. Suggest other ways in which the schools may assist in cultural change.
2. It is said that the schools, more than many other social institutions, deal with the hopes and ideals of the people. What are the general "hopes and ideals" of the American people today?
3. List figures to show how largely the rural schools share in the total task of public education.
4. Explain how schools are classified as "urban" or "rural."
5. List and discuss the assets of rural schools for development of modern education. Do the same for their present-day weaknesses.

Activities

You will enjoy reading one or more of the following books during this term. They tell of the work of country school teachers. Some of

them go back many years. The situations, the incidents, and the characters in these books will provide points for class discussion.

Chase, Mary Ellen, *A Goodly Fellowship*. New York: The Macmillan Company, 1939.

Eggleston, Edward, *The Hoosier Schoolmaster*, edited by Emory Holloway. New York: The Macmillan Company, 1928.

Kennedy, Millard F., and Harlow, Alvin F., *Schoolmaster of Yesterday*. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, 1940.

Lutes, Della T., *Country Schoolmā'am*. Boston: Little, Brown and Company, 1941.

Richardson, Chalmer O., *A School in the Country*. New York: Greenberg, Publisher, Inc., 1940.

Walker, Mildred, *Winter Wheat*. New York: Harcourt, Brace and Company, 1944.

Wray, Angelina, *Jean Mitchell's School*. Bloomington, Ill.: Public School Publishing Company, 1902.

Yates, Elizabeth, *Nearby*. New York: Coward-McCann, 1947.

Bibliography

Bathurst, Effie G., *Schools Count in Country Life*. Washington, D. C.: United States Office of Education, 1947.

Bode, Boyd H., *Democracy as a Way of Life*. New York: The Macmillan Company, 1937.

Counts, George S., *Education and the Promise of America*. New York: The Macmillan Company, 1945.

Educational Policies Commission, *The Purposes of Education in American Democracy*. Washington, D. C.: National Education Association of the United States, 1938.

—, *The Unique Function of Education in American Democracy*. Washington, D. C.: National Education Association of the United States, 1937.

Myers, Alonzo F., and Williams, Clarence O., *Education in a Democracy*, 3d edition. New York: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1948.

Smith, Samuel; Cressman, George R.; and Speer, Robert K., *Education and Society*. New York: The Dryden Press, 1942.

White House Conference on Rural Education, 1944, *Proceedings*. Washington, D. C.: National Education Association of the United States, 1945.

CHAPTER II

AN INTRODUCTION TO RURAL AMERICA

ONE OF THE HALLMARKS of modern education in any school is a close working relationship with society at large and specifically with the local community. For the rural school this means, of course, a close working relationship with rural society and with the rural community. Because this is true, some introduction to rural America is a necessary step in discussing the work of rural schools. Later chapters dealing with the aims, the programs, and the procedures of rural schools refer many times to this material. Admittedly, only a broad outline can be presented here, since any comprehensive discussion would fill volumes.

First, some of the fundamental effects on rural life of the Industrial Revolution are discussed. Then, because the soil resources of the nation are basic to its continued well-being, the discussion turns to a review of what has happened and is happening to the land. The third section deals with some of the more important and persistent problems of rural life in America; and the final section presents certain policies which may serve as guideposts to a permanently strong rural America.

How the Industrial Revolution Altered Rural Life

When the United States was new, it was almost wholly agricultural. Early national leaders, notably Thomas Jefferson, dreamed and wrote of the future in terms of an agricultural country with the people owning the land they lived on, essentially independent

and self-sufficing in an economic sense. Then, as now, agriculture was thought of not only as a way of earning a living but as a way of life as well. Rural life has always fostered self-reliance, resourcefulness, and a common-sense viewpoint.

Even while Jefferson planned, however, the Industrial Revolution was gaining momentum. The changes it has wrought are many and far-reaching. Great factory cities have been built, and rapid means of travel and communication tie all parts of the world together. It is perhaps less commonly realized that a part of the Industrial Revolution has been an Agricultural Revolution. Indeed, without a revolution in agriculture the complex structure of an industrialized economy could never have come into being, for all people are basically dependent upon abundant supplies of food and fiber products.

When the United States was a new nation, it required the surplus food produced by nineteen farmers to feed one city person. Now nineteen farmers can produce enough food beyond their own needs to feed sixty-six city people. Arthur Moore has called these figures "the most important figures in our civilization."¹ This tremendous increase in the productivity of farm labor has been due chiefly to the mechanization of farming.

This increase in the production of food over and beyond the needs of farm families has made possible the tremendous growth in city population. It also has brought about a fundamental change in the nature of farming. Whereas in pioneer times each farm was in large measure self-sufficient, the modern farm is not. The prosperity of the farm in early days was measured in terms of the abundance of the food and clothing it provided for the farm family. Today the prosperity of the farm is measured more significantly in terms of the income it brings. The manufacture of home necessities has shifted from the farm homes to the city factories. The city has always been dependent on the farm for a continuing supply of food and fiber products, but today the farmer is increasingly dependent on the purchasing power which the sale of his produce gives him. He buys an increasing volume of factory-made goods.

In short, the industrialization of the national economy has changed

¹Arthur L. Moore, *The Farmer and the Rest of Us*, p. 42. Boston: Little, Brown and Company, 1945.

farming from a subsistence venture to a commercial venture. Farming is no longer a self-sufficient and economically independent enterprise. It is inextricably woven into the economic pattern of the nation as a whole.

Population trends reflect these basic changes. Since 1820 the proportion of the total population living in rural areas has continuously decreased, as shown in the following table:

PER CENT URBAN AND RURAL POPULATION
EACH CENSUS 1790-1940¹

<i>Census</i>	<i>Per Cent Urban</i>	<i>Per Cent Rural</i>
1790	5.1	94.9
1800	6.1	93.9
1810	7.3	92.7
1820	7.2	92.8
1830	8.8	91.2
1840	10.8	89.2
1850	15.3	84.7
1860	19.8	80.2
1870	25.7	74.3
1880	28.2	71.8
1890	35.1	64.9
1900	39.7	60.3
1910	45.7	54.3
1920	51.2	48.8
1930	56.2	43.8
1940	56.5	43.5

This basic shift in population reflects the change from an almost completely agricultural nation to a highly industrialized nation.

It is to be noted that the term *rural population* as used by the United States Census includes not only people living on farms but all people living in population centers of fewer than 2,500 persons. Hence the figures on rural population include some people not ordinarily thought of as rural. Besides people in farm towns of less than 2,500 population, those in small factory and mining towns and

¹Adapted from *Sixteenth Census of the United States: 1940*, Vol. I, *Population*, p. 18. Washington, D. C.: United States Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census, 1942.

city suburbs, who though "rural" are not "farm people" nor even "farm village people," are included.

The proportion of the total rural population living on farms has decreased steadily for many years. The farm-to-city migration has been a well-known social phenomenon. It was sharply accelerated during the war years. Rural birth rates have consistently been higher than urban birth rates. For the five-year period ending in 1940, the net reproduction rate, expressed as a percentage of the number needed to maintain a stationary population, was only 96 per cent for the country as a whole, but for the farm population it was 136 per cent, and for farm villages of fewer than 2,500 people it was 116 per cent.¹

At the same time, with rural birth rates consistently high, the productivity of farm labor was rising, due to mechanization of the farm. This has resulted in a continuing overpopulation in rural America, measured in terms of work opportunities. The search for greater economic opportunity, together with the seeming attractiveness of city life, in large part motivates the movement of rural people to the cities. It seems clear that America will continue to be a nation of rural origins, with the rural communities the "seed-bed" of the nation.

The Land the Nation's Basic Resource

The complex industrialized economy of modern life remains basically dependent upon a continuing supply of agricultural produce. Since this is so, the maintenance of soil resources is clearly a matter of great importance.

In recent years the nation has awakened to a realization that its soil resources are seriously depleted. The United States Department of Agriculture, in a nation-wide erosion reconnaissance survey in 1934, found 36.8 per cent of the land "slightly eroded"; 40.8 per cent "moderately eroded"; and 11.8 per cent "severely eroded," with 3.0 per cent "essentially destroyed for tillage."² This is a condition

¹American Country Life Conference, *Proceedings of 24th Conference: Farm and Rural Life After the War*, p. 22.

²United States Department of Agriculture, *Soils and Men*, p. 90. Mountains, mesas, and badlands are not included in figures showing degree of erosion.

which can only be described as alarming. The seriousness of the situation is emphasized in the following statement:

It has been estimated that erosion removes 126 billion pounds of plant-food material from America's fields and pastures every year. This is more than 21 times as much as is extracted by crops, and entails an annual loss to farmers of at least \$400,000,000. Altogether our soil has suffered approximately 10 billion dollars' damage as a result of erosion, and the loss may reach the staggering total of 25 or 30 billion in another fifty years if the process of deterioration is not checked. By that time a large section of the United States would be as barren as the once fertile areas of North China.¹

From a long-range viewpoint, it seems a justifiable conclusion that the nation has been practicing suicidal agriculture. The reasons why farmers have done so are complex. In part, misuse of the earth has been due to the fact that there seemed to be almost endless miles of rich soil awaiting the plow. The very abundance encouraged waste. In part, it has been due to ignorance. Perhaps even more important has been the factor of economic pressure on the farmer. Too often low prices for the things he sells have forced him to produce more and more of his cash crops. This has not encouraged soil conservation. The increase in farm tenancy and the frequent periods of economic depression have not made for widespread and continuing practice of conservation measures.

Problems of Rural Society

In the process of rapid change and readjustment, problems have inevitably arisen in rural society. Some of these have been very persistent. Education shares with other social institutions the responsibility for working out solutions to these problems.

1. Types of farms. Americans are familiar with the terms "Big Business" and "Small Business." Just as there are different types of business enterprise, so are there different types of farms. Historically, the nation has approved the family-size, owner-operated farm as the most desirable type. Claims have been made that this type of farm

¹Maxwell S. Stewart, *Saving Our Soil*, p. 2. Reprinted by permission of Public Affairs Committee, Inc.

will disappear and is in fact in the process of doing so. It is sometimes argued that in the nation's industrialized economy, the small farm cannot successfully compete with large-scale corporation farms.

To determine just what is really happening is difficult. It is quite clear, however, that farms are increasing in size and that the increase comes not from claiming unsettled lands but from absorbing smaller farm units. Here are recent figures:

Today, over half of the farm land of the country is in farms of over 500 acres, compared to only a third in 1920. And farms over 1,000 acres now account for 40 per cent of the farm land compared with less than a fourth 25 years ago. Considering that the 1945 Census reports 1.1 billion acres in farms, 40 per cent of it—or close to 460,000,000 acres—is a good chunk of land to be in units of over 1,000 acres.¹

The mechanization of farming has had much to do with the increase in farm size. Mechanized farming requires a high capital outlay, and the farm enterprise must operate on a scale sufficiently large to provide adequate financial return on the investment. On the other hand, some persons believe the recent development of smaller, less expensive types of farm machines—particularly tractors—will make it possible for the family-size farm to operate as an efficient production unit. Raymond Moley, writing in *Newsweek*, makes this statement:

The first effect, twenty-odd years ago, of power-driven farm machinery was a trend toward larger farms. That was because the first machines were large and costly. Now the one-family farm can get small and cheap machines to do what the earlier big machines did.²

It must also be remembered that much of the increase in farm size came during the war years, when young men of farm-operator age were being called into the armed forces or were entering war industries. It is too early to predict the effect of present and possible future government programs aimed at helping veterans acquire farms. Furthermore, not all of the increase in farm size indicates an

¹Elco Greenshields, "Farms Are Getting Larger and Fewer," in *The Agricultural Situation*, 31 (January, 1947), p. 1.

²From Raymond Moley's column "Perspective," in *Newsweek* for October 29, 1945, p. 112. Reprinted by permission of *Newsweek*.

extension of corporation farming. In many instances it represents only the adaptation of farm size to the kinds of agriculture which experience has proved suitable to a particular region. Thus it is clear that what is a "large" farm for one type of farming in a given region may be a "small" farm for another type in another region. In many cases the loss of ownership and the incorporation of a farm into a larger unit has been merely the logical outcome of what was at best an uneconomic venture. This has been particularly true in the Great Plains region.

At the same time, the apparent trend toward large-scale farming must be recognized. A recent study by the Senate Special Committee to Study Problems of American Small Business indicates that community life suffers where large-scale farms predominate.

The reasons seem clear. The small-farm community is a population of middle-class persons with a high degree of stability in income and tenure, and a strong economic and social interest in their community. Differences in wealth among them are not great, and the people generally associate together in those organizations which serve the community. Where farms are large, on the other hand, the population consists of relatively few persons with economic stability, and of large numbers whose only tie to the community is their uncertain and relatively low-income job. Differences in wealth are great among members of this community, and social contacts between them are rare. Indeed, even the operators of large-scale farms frequently are absentees; and if they do live in Arvin, they as often seek their recreation in the nearby city. Their interest in the social life of the community is hardly greater than that of the laborer whose tenure is transitory. Even the businessmen of the large-farm community frequently express their own feelings of impermanence; and their financial investment in the community, kept usually at a minimum, reflects the same view. Attitudes such as these are not conducive to stability and the rich kind of rural community life which is properly associated with the traditional family farm.¹

In considering what shall be the national policy concerning the type of farming enterprise, it is pertinent to point out that one of

¹From *Small Business and the Community*, Report of the Special Committee to Study Problems of American Small Business, Seventy-ninth Congress, 2d session, December 23, 1946, p. 6.

the basic questions involved is whether farming is only a business enterprise or a way of life as well. If the values and virtues of the rural way of life are to be preserved and extended under modern conditions, it seems clear that the family-type farm must continue to be the basic agricultural unit.

2. *Farm tenancy.* A related problem is that of farm tenancy. Until recently, farm tenancy increased steadily for many years. Now the problem has become a disturbing one. The long-time trend was slightly reversed by 1940, when about 39 per cent of all farms were farmed by tenants; it was more sharply reversed by 1945, by which time the figure had dropped to 32 per cent.¹ These figures do not show the wide regional differences. Tenancy has always been high in the Southern states, though it is by no means confined to them. It is important to note, too, that the situation is particularly serious for Negroes.

Tenancy has traditionally been viewed as a step toward ownership. For many farmers it is still a step up the ladder to that goal. For others it provides a satisfying and socially adequate standard of living. Indeed, some tenants enjoy more advantageous economic status than do some owners. Yet for the most part tenancy is clearly undesirable. For the majority of tenant farmers it means frequent moves from farm to farm and standards of living which in too many instances are below the level of decency. Furthermore, tenancy is associated with such evils as unwise farming practices and soil depletion. Tenants have little incentive and little money to maintain and improve farm buildings. Community life suffers where tenancy is high. Support and leadership of such activities and institutions as club work, schools, and churches is not furnished by people who are economically poor, with little feeling of permanence. For children, particularly, tenancy is often an unfortunate way of life. In the words of the President's Committee on Farm Tenancy:

It lays a heavy hand upon the large number of rural children caught in this current, who find their schooling periodically interrupted, if not made impossible; they suffer from mental as well as economic insecurity.²

¹Max M. Tharp, "Farm Tenancy at Low Ebb," in *The Agricultural Situation*, 31 (March, 1947), p. 5.

²*Report of the President's Committee on Farm Tenancy*, p. 7.

3. **Farm mortgages.** Tenants are not the only farm people who are insecure. Many farm owner-operators are burdened with indebtedness. For many years, particularly during the 1920's and 1930's, the situation was serious. There has been improvement in recent years, but some disturbing elements are still present. The Bureau of Agricultural Economics has pointed out that the very active farm real estate market during and following the war years resulted in a significant volume of relatively large loans—large, that is, in relation to the probable long-time value of the land. Farmers who bought land under such conditions may find mortgage indebtedness a heavy burden in the years ahead unless farm income remains at a high level.

Government policy played a part in reducing farm mortgage indebtedness, but the gains have been due largely to the wartime and post-war agricultural prosperity. How permanent the gains are remains to be seen.

4. **Rural housing.** The home has been said to be the central point in the concept of "standard of living." An over-all view of rural housing standards is not possible here, but the following facts compiled from 1940 census figures and reported in the American Country Life Conference *Proceedings*¹ give an index to the general situation:

Of a total of 7,532,158 rural farm dwelling units—

- 34 per cent needed major repairs
- 82 per cent had no running water
- 9 per cent had no toilet or privy
- 69 per cent had no electric lights
- 47 per cent had four rooms or less
- 63 per cent had no refrigerating equipment
- 40 per cent had no radio
- 90 per cent did not have central heating

Generally, conditions are less desirable in homes occupied by tenants than those occupied by owners.

It must be remembered that birth rates are higher in rural areas than in urban areas. Future city dwellers as well as future farm people are growing up in farmhouses. There is much discussion at

¹American Country Life Conference, *Proceedings of 24th Conference: Farm and Rural Life After the War*, pp. 59-60.

the present time of national housing programs, but little is said concerning rural housing. If public policies and programs for housing are developed, rural America must be included.

For some years now farmers have enjoyed relatively high incomes, and the prospects for some improvement in rural housing are good. Definite plans have been made for wide extension of rural electrification. The Rural Electrification Administration hopes to reach an additional 1,300,000 rural homes in the next few years. Electrification alone will do much to improve rural housing and to make living in the country more attractive.

5. **Health and medical care.** The general health of the people and the availability of health and medical services provide yet another measure of rural well-being.

Examination of a large sample of the rural population in 1940 by physicians co-operating with the Farm Security Administration disclosed an average of 3.5 significant defects per person, including defective teeth, uncorrected visual defects, hearing defects, bad tonsils, hernia, and other conditions.

According to the 1940 census summaries, infant mortality per 1,000 live births stood at 42.3 in urban and at 50.7 in rural areas; maternal mortality per 1,000 live births was 3.4 for urban and 4.0 for rural areas. Typhoid fever, diphtheria, malaria, pellagra, and pneumonia all claim more victims in rural areas than in urban areas, in proportion to the population.

Dr. F. D. Mott of the United States Health Service has written:

While the state of urban health has improved steadily during the last fifty years, the state of rural health is very much as it was a half-century ago. In 1900, for example, rural death rates were about 50 per cent lower than urban; in 1940 while they were still lower, rural rates were only 10 per cent lower. These comparisons are corrected for the higher proportions of aged persons in rural areas.

What is most significant, the rate of deaths from diseases which we are best able to prevent is higher in rural areas.¹

There is an acute shortage of doctors in rural America. This became most serious during the war years, but even before the war there was only about one doctor for every 1,700 persons in rural

¹*Ibid.*, p. 67.

areas, while for the country as a whole there was one doctor for every 800 persons.

Hospital facilities in many rural sections are either nonexistent or inadequate. While cities have five hospital beds per 1,000 persons, rural areas have only one to two per 1,000 persons. Many counties—perhaps nearly half of all counties—have no approved general hospitals. More than 1,000 counties have no full-time county health officer. There are too few public health nurses.

The problem of health and medical services is related to that of farm income. Studies have shown that the amount of money spent for medical services is directly related to the amount of income, though there is little if any reason to suppose that families with low incomes are less in need of such services.

6. *Farmers' organizations.* In the modern world, individuals with common interests tend to band together and work in association with one another through organized groups. Farmers have traditionally been described as strongly individualistic, and this is probably true in some measure, but it is not wholly so. Even in pioneer days farm people developed practical ways of expressing mutual helpfulness through co-operative efforts.

Today there are many different kinds of organizations in rural America. The three most widely known groups concerned with economic improvement in agriculture are the National Grange, the Farmers' Educational and Co-operative Union, and the Farm Bureau. In addition, many farmers belong to such special-interest groups as those of grape growers or dairy associations. Many farm groups from time to time sponsor special-interest legislation, on both the state and the national level. The rural organizations, however, have seldom presented a truly united front.

The development of co-operative enterprises deserves special mention. The greatest volume of business transacted by these co-operative associations is in the marketing and buying of goods. For example, a marketing co-operative may deal with cheese; a buying co-operative, with fertilizer. The range of activities engaged in by such associations is constantly widening. The Ohio Farm Bureau Co-operative Association, for example, not only markets a wide range of farm commodities for its members and buys things needed by them but also owns and operates feed mills, oil refineries, and

fertilizer plants and has fleets of trucks for transporting goods to and from the farms of its members. It also offers members automobile, fire, life, and hospital expense insurance and includes an agricultural credit co-operative. Much of educational and social value comes from participation in the co-operatives, also.

The Agricultural Extension Service of the United States Department of Agriculture also works with various rural groups. The 4-H Clubs for rural children and youth are especially well known.

7. Migratory agricultural laborers. Much of the demand for wage laborers in agriculture is seasonal, reaching the peak at harvest time. This means that the total number of farm laborers varies greatly at different times of the year. For many families, it means the necessity of moving from place to place. "Following the crops" explains the migration of agricultural workers over the nation's highways.

Many migratory laborers move their families with them. Indeed, many times the whole family works. Some of the problems of these families must be noted here. The housing provided them is often inadequate and unsanitary. Children shift from one school to another and often do not attend any for long periods of time. The services of welfare agencies are often denied these people because they lack resident status. For the most part they have little or no medical care. Community life is largely closed to them. Large groups of them are not English-speaking. Their income is low.

Some attempts have been made to improve these conditions. In a few places, migrant labor camps offering quite adequate facilities have been provided. Most of their problems remain, however.

8. The role of government in agriculture. Farmers, generally regarded as rugged individualists, are often said to believe in the doctrine of "the less government the better." This is not wholly true. National history records many times when farmers, like people representing other interests, have sought government action in their favor. Government activities in the interests of agriculture are illustrated by the Homestead Act, the Land Grant Colleges and Universities, the State Experiment Farms, provisions for support of homemaking and vocational agriculture courses in high schools, the Agricultural Extension Service, and others.

The issues around which controversy has centered, however, are those dealing with direct participation by government in the struggle

for higher and more stable farm income. Particularly in the years following World War I, when the economic position of farmers became highly precarious, the agitation by farm groups for government action became very strong. Some explanation for the acute economic distress of farmers in those years must be set forth preliminary to any appraisal of recent government policies.

In the years just preceding World War I, prices received by farmers for their products were sufficiently high to give them adequate purchasing power in comparison with city workers. During the war years their position was even more advantageous. Beginning in about 1921, however, the farmers' position became increasingly difficult. The cost of things they had to buy tended to remain high, due to control of prices by industry and the high tariff policies of those years. The prices of farm products, on the other hand, fluctuated sharply and generally downward. The situation is illustrated by these figures: From 1929 to 1932 farm production dropped 6 per cent, while farm prices on an average dropped 62 per cent. The production of farm implements dropped 80 per cent, however, while prices of farm implements dropped only 6 per cent. The farmers, in short, were for too long in the position of receiving too little and paying too much—of selling for what was offered and paying what was asked. The situation was aggravated by the shift of the country, due to World War I, from a debtor to a creditor nation. Coupled with the high tariff policies, this tended to limit the volume of exports.

Various plans for government programs to relieve the farmers were projected. With the coming of the New Deal in 1933, far-reaching programs were instituted. While those programs have been the subject of much controversy, it is quite clear they have been influential in at least three ways: (1) They did increase and stabilize farm income in some measure, and by doing so improved the economic strength of the whole country. (2) They promoted conservation of soil and water resources. (3) They checked and in some measure reversed the long trend toward loss of farm ownership. The war years, of course, brought an even greater improvement in the economic condition of agriculture.

Limitation of production and the price support program have been the most hotly debated features of government farm policies.

Much of the discussion of the farmers' economic difficulties has revolved around the theory of huge food surpluses, yet the food needs of the world and for that matter of the United States have never been fully met. The war, of course, ended production limitations. What the future policy may be is not known. Food needs, however, must be the criterion of the policy.

A Statement of Policy for Rural America

There have been fundamental changes in rural America since the nation was founded. Today the rural environment continues to offer rich resources for good and useful living. The production of farm goods continues to be basic to the whole economy.

Many rural people do enjoy both security and well-being. Many, however, do not. The rural environment in and of itself does not guarantee either. Public policies must be developed on basic problems. The following guideposts are suggested as indicating essential conditions to be achieved.

1. The basic problem is that of farm income. Farmers must be assured income sufficiently high to provide a satisfactory standard of living.

2. The number of owner-operated farms should be increased, farm tenancy in its undesirable forms should be eliminated, and large-scale corporation farming should be discouraged. The family-size farm is the best type of farm.

3. The soil resources of the nation must be protected and conserved.

4. Rural communities now lacking services and facilities essential to desirable community life and to effective participation by their people in national and world affairs should be assisted in developing them. Health services and library facilities are examples of these services.

5. Agricultural production must be planned with reference to national and world needs for food and fiber products.

6. The development of agricultural policies and programs can best be carried on through the democratic processes of group planning, co-operative effort, and evaluation by those concerned. The in-

formation necessary to effective participation in these processes must be made available to all.

Summary

Agriculture has had its own "Revolution" as a part of the Industrial Revolution. Farming today is a commercial, not a subsistence, venture. Agricultural prosperity is possible only within a prosperous national economy. Rural and urban areas are interdependent, for the farm is increasingly dependent on the city factories for many necessities; and the city remains basically dependent on a continuing supply of food and fiber products. Furthermore, their higher birth rates make the rural communities the seed-bed of the national population.

The family-size owner-operated farm remains the basic unit in agriculture, but there is some evidence that industrialized farming threatens it. Farm tenancy has declined. So, too, has farm mortgage indebtedness. Farm income has risen, but over the years it has been characterized by instability and wide disparity. Many farm homes are so poor as to fail to meet minimum standards. Health and medical services are inadequate.

Farmers are learning the advantages of co-operation and organization. The extensive growth of co-operatives is particularly promising. Government policy today plays an active role in agriculture. The need for planning in agriculture on a national scale has been recognized and partially implemented, and the need for planning on a world scale is increasingly evident.

The conservation of soil and water resources is today a national problem, one of primary importance. It is a problem with direct implications for public education.

Questions for Study and Discussion

1. Why may production of food and fiber products properly be termed "the foundation of the national economy"?
2. Why is the conservation of soil and water resources so im-

portant? What factors tend to block widespread adoption of conservation measures?

3. What is meant by the statement, "Rural America is the seed-bed of the nation"?
4. Agriculture has changed from a *subsistence* to a *commercial* venture. List concrete ways in which farm life has changed in the process.
5. In what ways are land ownership and the preservation of the family-size farm related to community life?
6. What are some of the problems faced by migratory farm-labor families?
7. Review rural housing conditions.
8. What evidence is there that rural health needs are not being met adequately?
9. In what ways are farm co-operatives meeting the needs of rural people?
10. Prepare a critical discussion of the general policies for strengthening rural life that are suggested in this chapter.

Activities

1. Invite a county agricultural agent to speak to your class on government farm programs being carried on in your state.
2. Invite a county home demonstration agent to speak to your class on any one of several topics—rural housing, rural recreation, rural child welfare, rural nutrition programs, and so on.
3. Arrange a field trip for the class, to observe soil erosion and programs for its control.
4. Form committees to report to the class on conditions in your state in regard to farm tenancy, farm indebtedness, farm income, or other topics.

Bibliography

American Country Life Conference, *Proceedings of 24th Conference: Farm and Rural Life After the War*. Champaign, Ill.: The Garrard Press, 1944.

- Baker, O. E.; Borsodi, Ralph; and Wilson, M. L., *Agriculture in Modern Life*. New York: Harper and Brothers, 1939.
- Bennett, Hugh H., and Pryor, William C., *This Land We Defend*. New York: Longmans, Green and Company, 1942.
- Bennett, Russell H., *The Compleat Rancher*. New York: Rinehart and Company, 1946.
- Kolb, John H., and Brunner, Edmund de S., *A Study of Rural Society*, 3d edition. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Company, 1946.
- Lindstrom, David E., *American Farmers' and Rural Organizations*. Champaign, Ill.: The Garrard Press, 1948.
- Moore, Arthur, *The Farmer and the Rest of Us*. Boston: Little, Brown and Company, 1945.
- Nelson, Lowry, *Rural Sociology*. New York: American Book Company, 1948.
- President's Committee on Farm Tenancy, *Report*. Washington, D. C.: Government Printing Office, 1937.
- Sanderson, Dwight, *Rural Sociology and Rural Social Organization*. New York: John Wiley and Sons, 1942.
- Small Business and the Community*, Report of the Special Committee to Study Problems of American Small Business, Seventy-ninth Congress, 2d session. Washington, D. C.: Government Printing Office, 1946.
- Stewart, Maxwell S., *Saving Our Soil*. New York: The Public Affairs Committee, Inc., 1937.
- United States Department of Agriculture, *Soils and Men*. Washington, D. C.: Government Printing Office, 1938.
- , *Farmers in a Changing World*. Washington, D. C.: Government Printing Office, 1940.
- Vance, Rupert B., *Farmers Without Land*. New York: The Public Affairs Committee, Inc., 1940.
- Works, George A., and Lesser, Simon O., *Rural America Today*. Chicago: The University of Chicago Press, 1942.

Part Two

LIVING AND WORKING WITH CHILDREN IN RURAL SCHOOLS



In Part Two attention is focused on the teacher's work with children.

Since child development must always be considered in relation to the culture in which it takes place, Chapter III considers the advantages and disadvantages of the rural setting from that viewpoint. Chapter IV deals with the understanding and guidance of child behavior. This is an important problem, for the child must ever be the center of the teacher's efforts. In Chapter V the discussion centers around planning. Chapter VI deals with evaluation as a part of the teaching process. Its concern is with the question, "How does the teacher measure and appraise growth and learning?" Chapter VII considers the records and reports which promote good school life. Health and safety problems are dealt with in Chapter VIII. Chapter IX discusses school equipment and supplies. Chapter X considers the very practical problem of school housekeeping.

CHAPTER III

RURAL LIFE AND CHILD DEVELOPMENT

ONE OF THE MOST IMPORTANT requirements for effective teaching is an understanding of child development. Such understanding can never be gained merely from studying children, for the process of growing up is always conditioned by the culture in which it takes place. Accordingly, this chapter considers the rural scene as a setting for child growth. First, favorable aspects of rural living for child growth are examined. Then the ways in which rural life is or may be unfavorable to child development are considered and the problems of particularly disadvantaged groups of rural children are discussed. The final section states the implications of the situation for the rural teacher's work.

Ways in Which Rural Life Is Favorable to Child Development

Everyone has heard the conviction expressed, in one way or another, that "the country is the place to raise children." It is true that life in rural areas, particularly farm life, can in many ways be a good life for children.

1. Rural children live close to nature. The most obvious advantages of life in the country are the space and the close association with living and growing things. In the city, life is crowded. In the country there is room to play, to run, to keep pets, to garden, to be alone once in a while. There are trees to climb and no one to object to having them climbed; and there are no **KEEP OFF** signs on the meadows and fields. There are domestic animals to be cared for and

petted, and wild animals to be studied and observed. The child learns that nature influences man's work, and that in turn man can control some of the ways of nature. Thus he sees that there is a time to plant and a way to do it; and a time to harvest. He learns that some insects are helpful but others are destructive and must be controlled; that tillage can destroy the soil's riches, but wise practices can maintain it. These direct experiences with nature are good for children.

The rhythm of rural life itself is favorable to child development. It is slower and more regular than that of the crowded, hurrying cities. Under favorable circumstances, there are few drastic changes in the pattern of life from year to year, and things go on in their regular, unhurried patterns. In farm work there is the rhythm of life itself. Seeds are planted, and plants grow and produce new seeds and die. The calf is born, matures, and has a calf of her own. Some things grow rapidly and their life spans are short; others grow slowly and their life spans are long. Desirable attitudes and ways of feeling and thinking about things grow out of the experiences rural children have with nature.

2. Human relationships are close. In rural life human relationships are close and intimate. This is true both within and outside the family life. The ties of family living are stronger in rural society than in urban society, perhaps because the rural family still functions more as a social and economic unit. The work of different members of the city family may cut across family lines and interests, but the work of the farm family has unity. Because of its comparative isolation, the farm family is necessarily more self-sufficient as a social unit. Outside the home lie the neighborhood and the community where the child comes to know most, if not all, of the people. He knows the homes of the other children with whom he works at school. In the one-room school, children of different ages work and play together in a situation not very different from family life. In general, relationships are more personal than in city life and there is more feeling of responsibility for one another. The impersonal relationships of modern urban life have not yet supplanted the closer, more friendly, more neighborly ways of rural community living.

3. Farm children have desirable work experiences. Farm children learn the meaning of responsibility early in life. They are given useful tasks to do, and they share co-operatively with parents and brothers and sisters in the work of the farm and the home. The very nature of farm work is such that children become contributing members in productive tasks at an early age. Furthermore, many kinds of farm work involve clear cause-and-effect relationships which tend to produce attitudes of responsibility and faithfulness to duty. The chickens must be fed, and they must be fed regularly. The need is obvious, and the effects of failing to meet the responsibility are clear. The garden must be cared for, the difference between a well-cared-for garden and a poorly cared-for one being obvious. The need of the garden in terms of the family's welfare is equally obvious. There is in such tasks an element of *management*, involving planning and evaluating, which it is good for children to experience.

4. There are opportunities to make things. All children are interested in planning projects and carrying them to completion—in having ideas, and in seeing those ideas take shape. Farm children enjoy a unique advantage in developing such interests. Both in work and in play they have many opportunities to make things. Farm life provides materials and tools. Almost every farm has a shop of some kind. The farmer himself must be ingenious at many tasks; he is carpenter, plumber, metal-worker, machinist, and blacksmith as well as farmer. The farm wife, too, practices many skills. Children share in these experiences and develop the same practical ingenuity. In doing so, they build personality and character.

Farm children make, or share in making, more of their playthings than do children in the city, and they are less dependent on "store toys." In their work—baking a cake, or making an apron, or raising a calf, or tending a garden, or making a bridle—they experience the satisfaction that comes from translating ideas into tangible forms.

5. Rural people have high standards of personal conduct. There is some evidence that children who grow up in rural homes have backgrounds leading to the development of high standards of personal conduct.¹ The small community is by its very nature a strong force for social control, and in general neighborhood and community

¹Bird T. Baldwin and Others, *Farm Children*, p. 146.

groups hold to the same standards. In the small community there is quite general agreement as to what is approved and what disapproved in human conduct. Thus there is not so wide a range of standards nor so much confusion about the standards as may be found in urban society. There is little anonymity in the small community, too, and what the individual does is easily known to others. There is a healthy absence of spectacular criminal activities.

6. Rural life can be healthful. There is much in rural life that makes for development of sound, vigorous health. There is abundant opportunity for work and play in fresh air and sunshine. Farm and village homes can produce many of the essential foods required by growing children—milk, eggs, vegetables, fruit, and meat. Modern methods of food preservation make it possible for families to enjoy the produce of garden and orchard the year around.

Ways in Which Rural Life Is Unfavorable to Child Development

While rural life does offer many advantages, it also presents some serious handicaps to wholesome, all-around development for many children. The most serious of these disadvantages stem from the same conditions as do the advantages.

1. Many rural children suffer from lack of companionship. It is true that in rural areas there is space to run, to play, and to keep pets; but it is also true that some children live far from other children of their own age, and some farm children grow up starved for companionship. The study of farm children in Iowa by Baldwin and his associates reported as typical behavior of one-room school children that they hurried through morning chores in order to get to school to play with others before school work began. At recess periods and during noon hours the same intense interest in playing with others was evident. This behavior reflects a deep-seated need for play experiences with other children.

Benedict has reported that farm children, particularly those of preschool age, suffer from "sheer loneliness and lack of companionship."¹ Play equipment in many farm homes is meager. Fathers

¹Agnes E. Benedict, *Children at the Crossroads*, p. 91. Quoted by permission of The Commonwealth Fund.

and mothers are too busy with their many necessary duties to give much time to playing with their children.

Even in school, opportunities for group play experiences may be limited. This is particularly true of the many schools enrolling only a few children. There may be too few children of any one age group to form teams for such games as baseball. Games appropriate for participation by children of different ages are usually individualistic, and it is sometimes difficult to interest children in them. On many rural school playgrounds there is little play equipment, and at play periods there may be much aimless wrestling, shoving, and "standing around."

Because of limited contacts with other children and adults, some rural children are shy and aloof. This is likely to be most marked in beginners, especially at the first of the term.

2. Rural family life is not always democratic. While family ties are strong, rural family life is not always democratic. Benedict has stated that almost complete domination of the home by the father is sometimes found.¹ She points out that the nature of farm work may partially explain this. Not only is the father the head of the family in the traditional sense of the term, but because farming is a family enterprise his relationship to the others is that of a boss or foreman. The situation is sometimes intensified by the sheer hardships some families experience in trying to make a living from the land. In many families children are expected to carry heavy work burdens and to share in the labor of the farm without sharing in the planning and management of the farm enterprise. In such situations, much of the good that can come from work experience may be lost.

3. Rural communities sometimes judge child behavior harshly. The closer human relationships outside the home, in neighborhood and community, also have their unfavorable aspect. Rural people do tend to have high standards of personal conduct; but they are also less tolerant of behavior which seems to differ from accepted standards than are people in larger communities. As a result, community judgment on individual conduct sometimes tends to be harsh. This is important in any consideration of rural child development. The place he holds in the group, the attitudes taken by the community toward him and his family, are matters of great importance to the

¹*Ibid.*, p. 187.

growing child. Any behavior judged undesirable by the rural community is conspicuous, simply because the community is small. Any such behavior is apt to be long remembered. It is probably true, too, that rural people lack understanding of how complex influences of home and community factors operate in the lives of growing children, and therefore they tend to hold the children and their families too largely responsible for their conduct.

4. Child labor in agriculture is a serious problem. While the responsibilities children assume in doing useful work can build strong character, those responsibilities may and often do become so heavy as to constitute outright child labor. Child labor in agriculture is indeed a serious problem today. The actual extent of it is not known, and it is difficult to secure accurate estimates. There is much seasonal work, and the number employed varies greatly at different times of the year. Much of the work is family work.

The report of the White House Conference on Children in a Democracy offers this general statement concerning the situation:

Agriculture employs many more children than the street trades, and of the many thousands engaged in agricultural work, a substantial proportion are employed in industrialized forms of agriculture in which many of the workers are migrants. These are not children who merely do light chores and help in the fields on their home farms under the watchful protection of parents or other relatives or neighbors. The conditions under which they work are very different from those prevailing in the traditional American concept of rural life.

Child labor for wages on the farm today consists of hard and monotonous work. The children work long hours and are subject to competitive pressures under conditions that differ little in essentials from sweatshop employment in industry. Some of them work as individuals for individual farmers, but most of them work on large-scale farms, where the family is the labor unit. Some live in the locality and go home every night. Others come for the season with their families from near-by cities—the "one-crop migrants" who regularly move into the country each year to help with the harvesting of berries or vegetables. Others belong to the families of "year-round migrants." The children in migrant families usually have the additional hardships of poor living conditions, improper food, interruption of schooling. Frequent change of residence prevents their having any "home." Earnings of whole families are notoriously low, hardly

enough to meet current expenses and rarely enough to obviate relief in the succeeding slack season. Accident hazards are frequent, especially when workers are transported in crowded trucks.

Agricultural child labor is not limited, moreover, to isolated sections of the country or to migratory labor. Large numbers of children, both resident and migratory, are used in the cultivation of many crops.¹

Not all child labor in agriculture is on large-scale farms. Some parents force children to excessive labor, sometimes to the extent of interfering seriously with normal physical development and with school attendance.

There is little effective legislative restriction on child labor in agriculture. The most effective legal control is through enforcement of compulsory school attendance laws. Unfortunately, this is a matter of public indifference in some communities and particularly so with regard to children of migrant or minority nationality groups. The Fair Labor Standards Act of 1938 represents a definite and fairly successful effort on the part of the Federal government to regulate child labor in certain types of agricultural work.

5. Rural areas have few child-welfare and health agencies. The lack of such agencies constitutes still another disadvantage of rural communities, from the child-welfare viewpoint. There is need for more organized public health units with full-time health officers, public health nurses, and other workers. It continues to be true that incidence and mortality rates among rural people are higher than in urban groups for *preventable and controllable diseases*.

There are almost no rural communities with child-guidance clinics offering psychological and psychiatric services. There are probably fewer than four hundred child-guidance clinics in the whole country, including the cities. Provisions for foster care of dependent children, either in family homes or in institutions, are woefully inadequate. Services for physically handicapped children, for mentally deficient children, and for juvenile delinquents are similarly limited.

Development of agencies providing some of these special services has been stimulated in recent years by grants-in-aid from the Federal government to the states under the Social Security Act. Different

¹White House Conference on Children in a Democracy, *Final Report*, pp. 237-238.

states provide different amounts of matching funds, and the programs are therefore more advanced in some states than in others. Provisions for state programs of maternal and child-health services offer an illustration of how progress has been stimulated by the Social Security Act.

At the time the Act was passed (1935), almost half of the states had no special funds or had funds of less than \$10,000 for maternal and child-health programs. Fourteen states spent less than \$3,000 a year or nothing at all for that work. By 1945 all states had maternal and child-health divisions in their departments of health, and together the 48 states budgeted \$4,800,000 of their own funds for that program, in addition to funds received from the Federal government. In 1935, 56 babies out of every 1,000 died in their first year of life; in 1945, only 40 out of every 1,000 died.¹ The programs of maternal and child-health work, stimulated by Federal financial grants, surely contributed to the progress those figures reflect.

Even so, many predominantly rural states have not taken full advantage of the provisions of the Act. Their failure to do so is explained in part at least by their financial inability to do so. This same reason, of course, applies to the general inadequacy of child-welfare programs. The report of the White House Conference on Children in a Democracy states the case thus:

Today rural America differs less from urban America in the way of life than in economic condition; less in what families want for their children in city and country than in their ability to provide them. Rural America is far poorer than urban America.²

Yet rural communities need all child-welfare services, both those projected in the program of the Social Security Act and others. As has been pointed out, rural America is the seed-bed of the nation's population. The support of child-welfare programs in rural communities is a national responsibility.

6. Children of migratory families suffer special handicaps. The problems of certain disadvantaged groups in rural America are

¹United States Department of Labor, Children's Bureau, *Ten Years of Services for Children Under the Social Security Program*, Part I, p. 3. Washington, D. C.: Government Printing Office, 1945.

²White House Conference on Children in a Democracy, *Final Report*, p. 35.

particularly acute, and must be considered in any over-all review of rural child development. Perhaps the most striking are the problems of children in migratory agricultural families. There is no accurate information as to total numbers involved. It is estimated there are 350,000 families at any one time involved in interstate migration.¹ Studies do indicate conclusively that the migrant agricultural group includes many families. A description of how the children live has been given by Clinton:

Usually migratory farm families travel in crowded trucks. Many have to live in and under the trucks for days at a time. Even when housing of a sort is available it also is likely to be makeshift and dirty and to afford little protection against the weather. Often water is hard to obtain and is unsafe for drinking purposes. Toilet facilities and methods of garbage disposal are primitive. It is hard for the families to find a place to bathe and to wash clothes. Their food is kept without refrigeration and often spoils. The lack of screens allows flies and other insects to walk on food and sewage alike. Children work long hours in the fields at too early an age because it is difficult for their fathers to earn enough money without their help. When they get sick they usually cannot get doctors and health services because they cannot afford to pay for them, or do not know how to find them.²

Communities sometimes take the viewpoint that migratory families are only temporary visitors and that health and education services for them are not matters of community responsibility. Frequently, too, the point is raised that the families are not legal residents. Apart from the obvious needs of these children for regular and good schooling, adequate diet, health services, and suitable housing, their situation is bad in other ways. They are denied the friendships and group play experiences of children who have stable homes. They experience both economic and psychological insecurities. They share the cares and troubles of their parents. They are seldom really welcome in any community where they make their temporary homes. They grow up with no sense of belonging to and being members of social groups, save as they are members of shifting

¹*Ibid.*, p. 40.

²Ione L. Clinton, "A Chance for Better Health Comes to Children Who Follow the Crops," in *The Child* for October, 1945, p. 51.

groups made of others as disadvantaged as themselves. Their difficulties are multiplied if they are of a minority group and speak a foreign language.

Implications for Rural Schools in These Advantages and Defects

Both the desirable and the undesirable features of rural life from the viewpoint of child development have implications for the schools. Some involve administrative problems, but there are others which bear on the responsibilities and opportunities of the rural teacher.

1. The rural environment offers assets on which the schools can capitalize. The rural school can build close home and school ties on the basis of the characteristically close human relationships of rural people. Sometimes city teachers find it difficult to believe there is much real interest in school matters among the parents. It is even suspected, by some, that there are parents who look upon the school chiefly as a convenient place to leave the children during the day. The rural teacher, on the other hand, can usually be confident of genuine parent interest in the child's school life, and of parental support for the school. On this foundation, rewarding and effective home and school co-operation can be built.

The natural interest of children in nature and their experiences with plant and animal life can be carried over into school work in science and into leisure-time activities. Similarly, the character traits of responsibility and independence and the high standards of personal conduct commonly found in rural children can be translated into democratic school life. In like manner, rural life offers assets for the school's health program. Some schools during the war years did much indirect parent education through community service projects involving co-operative gardening and food canning.

2. The teacher should know what agencies concerned with child welfare are available, and work with them. Though such agencies are far from numerous, it may be true that there are rural teachers not making full use of existing ones. The county health nurse can be one of the rural teacher's staunchest allies. There are staff members in the local school district, the county school office, or the state department of education available to help the teacher with such special

tasks as administering intelligence examinations and checking the vision and hearing of the children. The public health officer, the school attendance officer, and the child-welfare worker, if there is one in the county, are persons to whom the teacher can turn when in need of special help. State health departments provide much service to schools. A careful exploration of resources available in any rural community will be very much worth while for the teacher.

3. It must be remembered that many children do much work outside the school. It has been pointed out that there is such a thing as child labor in agriculture. In communities where the public and perhaps even the enforcement officials are indifferent toward enforcement of compulsory school attendance laws for certain groups of children, the teacher may need to appeal to higher officials. Public education is for all the children of all the people. This is sound American doctrine; translated into practical terms, it means that children should be in school in accordance with the provisions of the various state laws.

The teacher needs to recognize, too, that many rural children do hard work. Every experienced rural teacher has known children who came to school thoroughly tired. The daily program may well provide for rest periods, especially for the younger children. School homework is best held at a minimum for children who have other work to do after the school day ends.

4. The need of rural children for socializing experiences is clear. The rural school can provide activities to help meet this need. It can be organized so as to provide both work and play experiences for larger groups than the typical grade organization often provides. There can be many all-school activities and instructional units, with children from several grades participating. Modern curriculum development provides many learning experiences for children working together, rather than individually.

Children may be shy and aloof at the beginning of the term. Special efforts to make them feel welcome and "at home" will be worth while. Beginners, particularly, may need time to adjust to the new school situation and to take an active part in school life.

It has been shown that playground experiences mean much to rural children. Because they can provide excellent socializing experiences, play periods require planning and leadership. Small rural schools may even be brought together several times each term for

large group activities, such as play days and music events. In addition, each teacher can explore ways of relating school activities to those of organized children's groups in the community. In some communities the school may stimulate organization of such groups as the Boy Scouts and Girl Scouts. Both Scout groups offer carefully thought-out programs for rural children. The excellent programs of the 4-H Clubs and the Future Farmers of America are socializing, though this may be incidental to their main purposes.

5. Most important of all, rural teachers are more than teachers. The rural teacher's viewpoint toward her responsibilities may well be like that of a child-guidance worker. This means that her concern will be for the child's total well-being, physical and psychological, not with isolated segments of child life. This point is clarified if it is remembered that for the child his "out-of-school" and "in-school" experiences are but arbitrary divisions of his *one* life. While all teachers must recognize this truth, it is of special importance for the rural teacher to do so because there are so few other special workers and agencies concerned with the welfare of the rural child. Upon the rural teacher rests responsibility for activities which in larger schools are assigned to other workers. The rural teacher is generally also the visiting teacher, the parent-education worker, the school librarian, and the recreation director; and in some measure she is inescapably also a public health worker, a school psychologist, and a child-guidance worker.

A word of caution may be in order here. No wise teacher attempts the impossible, nor assumes responsibility for work that only highly trained specialists should perform. On a common-sense and practical level, however, the rural teacher can deal with the whole range of activities touching on child welfare. Obviously, beginning teachers with but a year or two of professional education are not prepared to function as specialists. The situation presents still another example of the need for more adequate teacher-education standards, and for special staff services in rural districts. It is to be hoped that these changes will come soon. In the meantime, every teacher can draw upon her genuine concern for the welfare of the children, her warm sympathy for her pupils, her tactfulness, and her native intelligence and common sense to help the children and their parents. Her responsibilities are those of an all-round friend of rural children.

Summary

As a place for children to live and grow, the rural environment is one with both assets and defects. Among the former are the open spaces, the close association children have with nature, the closer human relationships both in the family and in the community, work experiences, opportunities to make things, a naturally healthful environment, and the high standards of personal conduct common to rural people.

Many of the defects stem from the same conditions which give the rural environment its assets. The lack of crowded living is matched by the isolation of farm homes, where children seldom have work and play experiences with others of their age. Small schools, too, find it difficult to provide socializing experiences. Frequently rural communities are harsh in passing judgment on behavior which seems to differ from accepted ways. Child labor in agriculture is a serious problem. Rural areas lack the agencies which in cities render child-welfare services helpful to the school. To the children of migratory farm-labor families, particularly those of racial or nationality minority groups, the essential conditions of wholesome development are practically all denied.

Both from the assets and the defects of rural living, as it bears on child development, certain implications emerge for the work of rural teachers. Every teacher can capitalize on some of the assets of rural life. The teacher can familiarize herself with those persons and agencies which can be of help to her in her work with children. Attendance laws provide a fairly effective check on child labor. Schools can be organized to provide socializing experiences. And, most important, rural teachers can adopt the child-development point of view. Having done so, they will view their responsibilities as inclusive of much that is not ordinarily considered to be involved in teaching.

Questions for Study and Discussion

1. Summarize ways in which rural life is favorable to child development.
2. How may the comparative isolation of some rural families affect the social development of the children?
3. What undesirable features of rural family life have been reported?
4. Why is it difficult to regulate child labor in agriculture?
5. What steps can be taken to regulate agricultural child labor?
6. List types of child and family welfare agencies usually available to social workers in cities, but seldom found in rural areas.
7. In what ways is the life of migratory farm-labor families unfavorable to child development?
8. Why must plans to improve the lot of migratory families be nation-wide in scope?
9. When the advantages and the limitations of rural life are reviewed, certain implications for rural teachers emerge. What are those implications?
10. Explain the meaning of the statement, "The rural teacher must be more than just a teacher."

Activities

Form committees to collect information and report to the class on some of the following problems. It may be worth while to summarize the information so gathered and have it mimeographed for class members.

1. What are the provisions of the compulsory school-attendance laws in your state? What are the enforcement provisions? What specific legal responsibility has the teacher, if any, according to these laws?
2. What legal restrictions on child labor in agriculture are there? What are the enforcement provisions of those laws?
3. All forty-eight states now have divisions of maternal and child health in the state health departments. What staff members are

included in this division in your state? What county and local staff members are there in your county or section? What are their duties? How can they be of help to the rural teacher?

4. What agencies and officials can help the rural teacher who finds children in her school who are crippled, or who have only partial vision or hearing, or who need psychological or psychiatric guidance?

As sources of information, committees may interview the local county superintendent of schools, local health officers, and local law-enforcement officials such as the county or district attorney. General reference material summarizing child-welfare programs in the various states also is available. The following are particularly helpful, and they may be secured at nominal cost.

1. Southern Rural Life Council, *Agencies Concerned with the Quality of Rural Life in the South: A Directory*. Nashville, Tenn.: George Peabody College for Teachers, 1944.

2. United States Public Health Service, *Directory of Full-Time Local Health Officers*, revised to January 1, 1945. Washington, D. C.: Government Printing Office. (Price 10 cents)

3. United States Department of Labor, Children's Bureau, *Facts about Crippled Children*, 1944. Washington, D. C.: Government Printing Office.

4. —, *State Programs for Care of Children with Rheumatic Fever under the Social Security Act*. Washington, D. C.: Government Printing Office. (Price 25 cents)

5. —, *Ten Years of Services for Children under the Social Security Program, August 1935—August 1945*. Washington, D. C.: The Bureau.

Bibliography

Baldwin, Bird T.; Fillmore, Eva A.; and Handley, Lora, *Farm Children*. New York: D. Appleton and Company, 1930.

Benedict, Agnes E., *Children at the Crossroads*. New York: The Commonwealth Fund, 1930.

McWilliams, Carey, *Ill Fares the Land*. Boston: Little, Brown and Company, 1942.

National Education Association of the United States, Department of Rural Education, *Child Development and the Tool Subjects in Rural Areas*. Washington, D. C.: The Association, 1941.

National Education Association of the United States, Department of Rural Education, *Guidance in Rural Schools: Yearbook, 1942*, edited by Fannie W. Dunn. Washington, D. C.: The Association, 1942.

Strang, Ruth, and Hatcher, Latham, *Child Development and Guidance in Rural Schools*. New York: Harper and Brothers, 1943.

Weber, Julia, *My Country School Diary*. New York: Harper and Brothers, 1946.

White House Conference on Children in a Democracy, *Final Report*. Washington, D. C.: Government Printing Office, 1942.

UNDERSTANDING AND GUIDING CHILD BEHAVIOR

RURAL TEACHERS ARE properly concerned with the problem of guiding child behavior *in school*, even though they do recognize that in-school development is but one part of total child growth. This concern is shared by superintendents, by board members, and by parents. In expressing their concern, they often speak of the problem as "discipline." The problem of discipline looms large in the success or failure of beginning teachers. This chapter therefore deals with the broad question of understanding and guiding child behavior in the school.

It discusses first the meaning of *discipline* and the importance of school control. Second, it presents several general ideas basic to intelligent thinking about child behavior. The final section gives specific suggestions for achieving and maintaining desirable school control.

What Is Involved in the Problem of Discipline

There is much confused thinking about what *discipline* means and what constitutes desirable school discipline. When various persons think and talk about it, they often do so with very different meanings in mind. The teacher takes an important step forward when she learns to think clearly about what is involved in the problem of discipline.

Discipline is related to goals, or purposes. In modern schools, discipline is related to goals. Sometimes the goals are individual, in the

sense they are goals toward which a child is working by himself. Increasingly, schools are organizing activities and learning experiences in terms of group goals. For example, a group study of safety may be undertaken. The general goals or purposes will be defined in co-operative planning periods. This may involve a survey of safety hazards in the school, the homes, and the community at large. Construction of models, such as of sanitary and protected wells, may be decided upon as a worth-while activity. Short dramatizations showing safe and unsafe ways of doing things may be written and prepared for presentation at a parent meeting or before another school. Fire drills can be planned and practiced. If it is a one-room country school, the stove may be unsafe and the children may plan to make it safer by placing metal sheets under it and on the wall behind it, or by repairing the stovepipe and the chimney.

Clearly, different kinds of individual and group behavior will be appropriate during different activities involved in such a unit. While all are engaged in reading to gather information on some particular topic, it will be necessary for the room to be quiet and for a favorable setting for study to be maintained. In group planning and evaluation periods when the purpose is to take stock of work done and chart the next steps to be taken, the type of discipline—of pupil behavior—will be different. There will be animated exchange of viewpoints, some argument and debate, and the type of free discussion out of which intelligent group decisions come. When construction work is under way, as in making models or repairing the stove, the type of desirable behavior will again differ. Children will be working with tools, and talking as they work. While dramatizations are being written, several children may work together, gathering around a table or pulling their desks together in one part of the room. In fire drills the purpose is to establish a quick, efficient routine for leaving the building. The procedure to be followed must be agreed upon and must be followed exactly. On the other hand, these procedures for leaving the room need not apply at ordinary dismissal times, for then the purpose is quite different.

Thus the types of behavior which are desirable are always dependent on the activity under way. Stated simply, the way it is desirable for the children to behave depends on what they are trying to get done. When the reasons for a certain type of behavior are strong and

are clearly seen by the children, discipline is no problem. In a very real sense, the purpose of the action sets the behavior pattern for it, for the successful realization of any goal imposes its own necessary way of behaving. The problem is not what ways of behaving are desirable but what ways of behaving are appropriate to the purposes involved.

Discipline must exemplify the democratic values. It is not enough to say that discipline is related to goals. In concrete forms, discipline must always be consistent with the democratic way of life. Democracy as a way of life rests on certain values. Those values have been variously defined and stated, but there is general agreement on the essential ones. The key value is respect for the personality of every person, and recognition of the worth of the individual human being. This involves respect for others, and self-respect, also. Other key values are freedom, which is always paralleled by responsibility, and justice and equality of opportunity. The "pursuit of happiness" is one of the rights which democracy recognizes and seeks to promote. Concern for the welfare of others characterizes persons who live democratically. Democracy rejects violence; instead, it appeals to reason and to truth. Group decisions, made with careful regard for the rights of minority opinion, define the policies and settle the issues in democratic societies.

These basic democratic concepts are implicit in the modern teacher's thinking about school discipline. The development of democratic citizenship is the central purpose of education. School life which violates the essential values of democracy in its everyday human relationships will not build democratic citizenship, no matter how strenuously history and civics may be taught. One of the significant reports of the Educational Policies Commission states the point in this way:

There can be no lasting contribution to peace, reason, and order in a school in which the discipline is based on autocracy; from a school in which the mainspring of effort is rivalry; from a school in which the chief purpose is personal advancement; from a school where the very atmosphere is heavy with intolerance, fear, and suspicion; from a school that ignores and overwhelms the living individual personality of each child.

Only from a school which is served by a socially informed and

socially effective teaching personnel; from a school with a broad, humane, and flexible curriculum; from a school saturated with the educational philosophy which commands respect for the personality of each child that it touches; only from methods of instruction which not only teach but which actually *are* democracy and co-operation, will the appeal to reason be heard and heeded.¹

School discipline, then, is to be viewed in relation to purposes; and the forms and spirit of discipline must be consistent with democratic values. Thought of in this way, the concept of discipline emerges broadly as the quality of human relationships prevailing in the group as the group works toward expanding goals. The teacher's responsibility as disciplinarian is seen as that of helping the children grow in democratic behavior—in self-control, so that freedom and responsibility are balanced; in respect for others and for self; in concern for the general welfare; and in ability to adapt behavior so as to achieve worth-while goals.

An Understanding of Children Basic to Intelligent Discipline

The day-to-day business of helping children grow in democratic behavior requires an understanding of how children grow. The subject of child development is of course too extensive even to be introduced adequately here. Yet certain characteristics of child growth with particular implications for the problem of discipline can be mentioned.

Children are active. They are normally and naturally active. They are alert, interested, curious, and eager. For younger children the task of "sitting still" for any length of time is a very difficult one. By the time they are old enough to go to school, children have developed fairly advanced control of large-muscle activities and quite naturally use these muscles in one activity after another. Traditional schools expected children, even beginners, to change when they entered school from days of almost uninterrupted physical activity to long periods of quiet work. Modern schools recognize that

¹Educational Policies Commission, *The Purposes of Education in American Democracy*, pp. 31-32. Used by permission.

activity is natural for children, and that, moreover, it is one of the ways in which children learn. It is through activity they explore their environment and build greater physical co-ordination. Hence the schools provide balanced programs of rest and activity for children; periods of sitting still are balanced with periods of physical activity. The modern school turns the natural desire for activity to good purpose in meaningful and active learning experiences.

Children continuously and unconsciously seek satisfaction of basic personality needs. Not only are children active, but all child behavior is in a sense goal-seeking. That is, behavior is aimed, consciously or not, at achieving satisfaction of certain basic personality hungers. Behavior may therefore be viewed as directed toward certain goals. The task of the teacher, as of other adults responsible for child guidance, is to establish conditions in which these needs may be satisfied through socially desirable behavior.

For all children, the need to know security is deep-seated and compelling. The word *security* may lack exact meaning, but it serves better than any other to indicate the primary personality need of all children. They need to know that they belong—in the home, in the school, in the community; that they have a secure and recognized place in the groups in which they live. The behavior of any child whose daily experiences fail to give him this sense of belongingness is likely to be warped. Because all children not only are alike in that they share this need but also differ as individuals, the behavior expressing the need for security may take very different forms. One child may become very shy and retiring; another may be very aggressive. Child-guidance workers know that much seemingly socially undesirable behavior stems directly from efforts of children to acquire security, to achieve a feeling of belonging.

In part, the security which children need is dependent on the economic status of the family. Families of migratory farm laborers, for example, know little economic or social security. In part, too, it depends upon social status. The child whose family is considered undesirable is not likely to feel secure in school and community groups. Yet it is also true that some children from families with economic security and good social standing lack basic security. The child who somehow does not measure up to what his parents expect of him may suffer acutely from insecurity, no matter what his fam-

ily's wealth and social position may be. The child who has experienced many failures and few successes at school may develop sharp feelings of insecurity.

It is important to note also that adults' feelings of insecurity are sensed by children and shared by them in some measure. Homes may reflect conflict or lack of harmony between parents, or anxiety for relatives, or financial worries. Many intelligent adults in the modern world feel anxieties because of the wide confusion left by the war and the economic tensions of the times. Lack of national unity, unsettled problems of world peace, lack of housing, the high cost of living, and other general problems may create atmospheres charged with insecurity. In subtle ways children sense these feelings, and share in them. It is important that parents and teachers establish their own sense of security, so as to be able to work securely with children.

Children need to be loved and to express affection themselves. The strength of this need varies with the individual and for any one individual at different ages, yet it is an essential need for all children. This does not mean that children need to be overwhelmed with demonstrative affection. They do need the warm, comforting, cheerful love of parents and of other adults, and they need to respond to this love in their own ways. As children grow older, they become less dependent on adults, and the need to establish humanly satisfying relationships with others of their own ages grows stronger. Children need to be made to feel significant, to feel that they are looked upon with genuine affection and regard.

Children need also to experience success and approval. They need to know they are accepted for what they are. Case studies of mal-adjusted children clearly tell the unfortunate effects on growing personalities of continued rejection and disapproval. There are homes that do not satisfy this need. There are unwanted children. There are parents who are continually disappointed in their children, who let them know in various ways how unfavorably they compare with brothers or sisters or cousins. School life, too, may deny children the satisfaction of this need. Some children are acutely conscious of the fact that their clothes are not "right," that they are viewed with actual distaste by their teachers because they are slow to learn, or are dirty, or have speech defects, or are unacceptable in any of

many other ways. Similarly, they may be rejected by other children.

To know success, even in small measure, builds for stability in personality and for self-confidence. If the child can feel an honest sense of achievement in school work and in playground activities, it contributes to desirable ways of behaving. A warm word of approval, a friendly smile, a cheerful greeting can help the child feel the approval so essential to healthy personality growth.

Children need social recognition. They need to have the feeling of success confirmed for them by the recognition of others. If this need is satisfied in socially desirable ways, as by real and earned praise, desirable personality traits are built. If it is denied realization, children may seek satisfaction of it in undesirable ways. There are children who gain what they consider social recognition through being troublesome. The talents and abilities of children vary. Some will be leaders in projects demanding skill in arts and crafts, others in playground activities, others will be outstanding in the skill and content subjects. The point is that the home, the school, and community life should be organized so all children can contribute successfully to group undertakings and by doing so win social recognition for desirable achievement. Failure to provide such experiences is to invite children to strive for recognition through undesirable behavior.

Children need to have times when they are permitted a large measure of freedom. There must be times when they do what they want to do, in their own way; times when they are free to work out their own problems and to make their own decisions, even to make their own mistakes. They need opportunities to choose activities, with wise but unobtrusive adult guidance. They need experiences in group planning in which participation is honest and genuine and their opinions and decisions are respected. They need to learn by mistakes as well as by successes.

Along with this need for freedom, it is true, too, that children need the support and guidance of adults. They should not be asked to make decisions which properly belong to adults. The exact balance of freedom and guidance in any particular activity, for any child or group of children, cannot be specified. The important point is that the teacher must be sensitive to the children's varying needs to be let alone to work things out for themselves at times.

So much for the basic personality needs of children. An understanding of them will give the teacher much insight into the behavior of individuals. The wise teacher will continuously appraise the school program to note how adequately it provides satisfaction of them. She will be alert to avoid school experiences that block the children's drives toward satisfaction of them. She will question school practices that repeatedly expose any child to failure, deny any child social recognition, thwart the drive toward self-determination, bring any child repeated disapproval, and build insecurity rather than security. She will see how important it is that new children in school are helped in the important business of coming to feel at home and of developing satisfying relationships with other children. She will seek to make the school a warm, friendly place where all children find as much security, love, approval, and recognition as the school can provide.

Children differ. So far, the discussion has emphasized ways in which children are alike. They are active, and all share certain common personality needs. But children differ, too, and the ways in which they differ have meaning for the guidance of behavior.

Everyone recognizes obvious differences in children. Babies do not weigh any standard amount when they are born. They learn to walk and talk at different ages. They grow, physically, at different rates. They cut teeth at different ages, and lose them at different times. So, too, do they differ in less obvious ways. The teacher who is skilled in guiding child development recognizes the fundamental truth that children differ and that many behavior problems stem from failure to consider such differences.

For example, all first grade children are not equally ready to learn to read. The guidance of school learning, in reading and in other subjects, must in some measure be individualized for children. It is particularly important in the early grades, when the child's attitude toward school and his school work habits are being formed. Imposition of a rigid and uniform pattern of teaching, with a uniform level of expectancy for all children, will inevitably doom some children to failure and confusion. This results in development of feelings of insecurity, failure, and frustration. Such experiences cause the child to dislike school, and his behavior is warped and further learning is made more difficult.

Children differ not only in the degree of readiness for certain learning activities but in their unique talents and abilities. For every child there is some area of greatest success. Some are most gifted in arts and crafts, some in music, some in rhythmic and muscular co-ordination, and some have unique social leadership abilities. In the school with a narrow and subject-matter-centered curriculum, many children are denied opportunities to share in the kinds of things they do best. In the school with a broad and flexible curriculum, on the other hand, children of varying talents and abilities find ways to earn success and self-expression and recognition.

Children differ, too, in interests. Construction activities appeal strongly to some and not to others. Children will select different books during free reading periods. In free choice periods, some will work at the easels, others with clay, others at the shop bench; and some will read while others will want to visit. Interests change, too, from time to time. Some interests persist and grow over months or years. On the other hand, all children at times develop strong but temporary interests. Freedom for wide exploratory experiences both in the home and in school promotes sound personality growth.

Complex patterns of motivation underlie all human behavior. Enough has been said in discussing personality needs and the differences in individuals to suggest that behavior is a complex thing. Not all teachers understand the complexity of human behavior, however, and failure to do so may make child guidance difficult. Some teachers, for example, persist in asking children to explain "why" they have done certain things. This may at times be helpful and even necessary, but there are certainly times when the only truthful answer a child can give is, "I don't know." This may be the answer the teacher is least willing to accept, however.

Yet it is true that many times a child's behavior is in response to motives of which he is quite unaware. The child does not say, "I am disturbed by deep insecurities; my mother and father are quarreling, and we think we are going to have to move and don't know where we can find a house." Furthermore, behavior is a function of the total situation; and any single segment of a child's life is therefore influenced by the total pattern of his personality. His behavior in any given situation rests not on any single immediate motive but on a complicated and constantly changing pattern of

motives. It is to be viewed as a result of all that has gone into the making of his personality.

Sometimes single, powerful experiences play a strong part in influencing behavior. There are case studies illustrating this. If a child has had a narrow escape from a burning home, or has been in a serious automobile accident, or has been greatly frightened in some way, his behavior may be disturbed for some time afterward. However, behavior problems cannot usually be traced to any single intense experience. "Problem" behavior is more commonly the result of day-to-day thwarting of basic personality needs, of repeated experiences out of which have grown fears, repressions, inhibitions, anger, hostility, and distrust.

When the teacher recognizes the complexity of child behavior, and indeed of all human behavior, she will look upon discipline as more than a school problem. She will sense the need for adopting the child-guidance viewpoint. Her approach to individual problems will be the case-study approach, and her search for causes may take her well beyond the limits of the schoolyard. Her concern will be with the total personality of the child. And, very importantly, she will remember that growth in behavior, like all growth, is continuous but gradual.

Practical Suggestions for Establishing and Maintaining Desirable School Discipline

Much of what has been said in this chapter should give teachers helpful ideas about establishing and maintaining desirable school discipline. It is clear, though, that discipline is not a matter to be handled by cut-and-dried rules or by prescription. Children are too different and behavior is too complex for any such approach to have validity. But there are certain things which can be helpful in achieving democratic school control.

1. The teacher's attitude is reflected in her classroom management. The teacher who genuinely likes children and enjoys working with them does not often have discipline troubles. By being enthusiastic about her work, by showing a real and sincere interest in it and in the children, the teacher establishes good feeling and helps the

children generate enthusiasm and interest. Often children's behavior simply reflects what they sense adults expect of them. All experienced school workers have known children who had different patterns of behavior for different teachers. The teacher who is cheerful, friendly, courteous, and poised, the teacher who likes children and looks forward to working with them, has taken a long step toward assuring good school management. By holding high personal standards for herself, she helps children to accept and strive for high standards also.

2. Bright, attractive, interesting schoolrooms promote good school feeling. Children coming into a schoolroom that by its well-kept, clean, inviting atmosphere seems to give promise of many happy and interesting experiences cannot but respond in some measure with appropriate behavior. As the school term progresses, much of the work of arranging and decorating the room may be shared with the children, but it is important that the teacher have the room ready for a good beginning on the first day. It may be well to add a word of caution, however—there is a vast difference between a schoolroom which is interesting and appealing and one which is so dressed up that it seems to say, "Do not disturb."

3. Careful, thorough planning of school work is important. To put this point bluntly, the teacher who has to improvise from one class period to the next and from day to day is inviting trouble. The first few days of school, particularly, require careful planning. Provision should be made for some discussion periods, for co-operative planning of group activities. But for the most part, the first days of school should be made busy and worth-while ones for the children without too much reliance on their initiative and self-direction. From those first days of school, children can gain a feeling that the teacher knows her work, that she is competent, and that she "knows where she is going." Careful planning of each day's work gives the teacher a sense of security, too. On the other hand, if the teacher treats her work as of little importance, the children, too, will treat their work lightly.

4. Establishing friendly relations with the parents helps build desirable school discipline. When parents know, like, and respect the teacher, the children will be likely to respect her, too. During the first weeks of the term, the teacher may call at the homes. Perhaps

a meeting of parents may be called to discuss some such problem as the planning of hot lunches. It can be suggested that the parents come to the school when the fall physical examinations are given the children. One way or another, the teacher can arrange to meet the parents and visit with them. A few friendly visits early in the term will make it easier to call on parents during the year if problems do arise. They also contribute to the teacher's knowledge of the children's home backgrounds.

5. Behavior problems are few in a school where children are fully occupied with meaningful work. The child who is busy at worthwhile tasks generally will not present behavior problems. It is not enough, however, just to provide sufficient work to keep all children busy. If this were enough, workbooks would long ago have solved all discipline problems. Endless periods of workbook activity, or of any other tasks which are repetitious and perhaps unrelated to the children's needs and interests, are themselves productive of undesirable behavior. The work children are asked to do should be such that they recognize it as worth doing. Children can share in the planning of the work and can help organize their time budgets. It is important that the work be such that in it they can earn success. In the well-managed classroom there will be periods for rest and relaxation, for play, and for self-chosen activity, as well as periods for study; but there should not be long periods of idleness for any child.

6. Learning activities must be suited to the abilities and, insofar as possible, to the interests of the children. Children who are expected to read material that is too difficult for them may turn from it to more rewarding, if less acceptable, activities. By the same token, children who are expected to work always at tasks so easy that they present no challenge may find more diverting things to do. One practical way of providing for differences in ability is to make differentiated assignments, setting up two or three levels of work. Supplementary reading may be provided. In the content subjects, reference books ranging over several grades in reading difficulty may be provided. In these ways and in others, effective teachers assure adjustment of learning activities to the varying abilities of the children, and in doing so they indirectly build for desirable school behavior.

7. When children genuinely share in the planning of school experiences, they develop feelings of responsibility for carrying them out successfully. The ability of children to enter constructively into the planning of school activities depends, in part, upon their past experience. In keeping with their growing ability, the wise teacher gives them responsibilities in making choices and in organizing their work. This does not mean that the teacher ignores her proper adult responsibilities, but it does mean she recognizes the fact that children feel responsible for work they have helped to plan.

If the center of interest is a study of safety, for example, children may decide whether to organize the work by co-operative writing of a scrapbook, with illustrations of various sorts, graphs, and reports; or by preparing several short dramatizations; or in yet some other way. Once the decision is made and the work starts, planning will be necessary for discussion of the problems encountered, what needs doing next, for what topics more reading material must be provided, how the work of individuals and of committees is to be co-ordinated, and so on. As the pupils build responsibility for doing work they have helped to plan, problems of undesirable behavior are less and less frequent.

8. Children can share in many of the group responsibilities of school living. The school can be made "our school." This kind of feeling grows when children share in such responsibilities as the handling and care of equipment, playground management, lunch period duties, and classroom care and decoration. Planning for these responsibilities can be a group activity. In part, too, this feeling of mutual responsibility is a reflection of how sincerely co-operative the teacher is in her work with the children.

9. Many of the necessary routines of group living can be established by group discussion and decision. In general, it is wise to avoid having many rules to manage such matters as sharing playground equipment, leaving the room, using the library, and the like. In some matters, of course, it is necessary for the teacher to act decisively in terms of her best judgment. But there are some routine matters for which rules are necessary; and if these rules represent group agreements rather than imposed policies, they are seldom sources of trouble.

Snowballing on the school grounds is an example of such a

problem. When it arises, the teacher can call a group conference for discussion of the matter and raise such questions as, "What are fair and unfair practices?" "On what part of the grounds can snow-balling be approved and what parts must be 'safety zones'?" She can stress the need for safety precautions. The final group decisions should be clear and definite, and simple enough to be workable. Sharing playground equipment is another example of the type of problem which can be handled in this manner. By handling such matters democratically when the need for some regulation clearly has arisen, many discipline problems can be avoided and positive attitudes of democratic citizenship can be developed.

10. **Variety in the school program helps.** It is perfectly natural that discipline problems should arise in any school where little more goes on than reading, reciting, and filling blanks in test exercises. Such a narrow range of experiences dooms some children to failure, and for many it creates sheer boredom. In contrast, a program rich in varied experiences in music, arts and crafts, dramatization, construction work, and group projects of various sorts provides opportunities for different children to express their interests and experience success. It is entirely possible, of course, to carry variation too far and create school chaos. The best school discipline is in schoolrooms which provide a variety of activities without sacrificing order; in which the work is interesting and varied without being confusing.

11. **The teacher needs to be well-informed on many subjects.** Sometimes discipline problems grow out of the children's conviction that the teacher does not know much about the subject matter she is trying to teach. The teacher who knows the subject matter she teaches and a great deal more can enrich discussions, stimulate thought, and add positive interest to the work. By doing so she builds for good work habits and genuine interest in school activities. By advance preparation, the teacher can assure her control over the subject matter at hand and broaden her knowledge of the topics being studied to the point where she can enrich class study.

12. **Health conditions directly influence behavior.** The heating, lighting, and ventilating of the schoolroom are matters to be watched closely. It is important that the children be seated comfortably. Some children will need extra rest and relaxation; some may need to

experience more activity than others. The clues to understanding many behavior problems may be in the children's health records. They may relate to defective vision or hearing or some deep-seated nervous or glandular condition. The school nurse or the school or family physician can be helpful in diagnosing behavior problems as well as physical problems.

13. The teacher must always keep faith with the children. The confidence of the children and their respect, if once honestly earned, will carry a teacher through many problems which might otherwise become very serious. Only as a teacher shows by act, word, and expression that she respects each child's personality, that she deals with all fairly and justly, does she build pupil confidence in her judgment and respect for her as a teacher. Among other things, the teacher must treat any work she asks of children as of importance. If children are asked to do long assignments and then find that the teacher ignores the papers or goes over them superficially, they soon lower their standards to match hers—and in doing so they lose some of their respect for her.

14. Children respond to the teacher who takes part in activities which are important to them. Group play activities, for example, are important to children and particularly to rural children. The teacher who enters into enthusiastic planning for play periods, who helps secure play equipment, and who is resourceful in suggesting play activities and even enters into games now and then will find she gains much pupil good will.

15. There are times when it is best for the teacher to leave well enough alone. It is the part of wisdom, at times, to let children work out their own solutions to difficult situations. Some teachers make the mistake of interpreting all behavior difficulties as signals for active teacher intervention. Of course, it is not the part of wisdom to let situations get out of hand. But in some cases, such as committee work in which some child fails to co-operate with the others, the best procedure may be to let the group handle the matter. In many cases the wise teacher fails to take obvious notice of situations of which she is perfectly aware.

16. The time and place to discuss a child's behavior is in private conference with him or with his parents. It is almost uniformly true that little good and much harm will come of reviewing and discuss-

ing and censuring any child's behavior before the whole group. Private conferences in which the situation is reviewed, the causes explored, and the reasons for the teacher's attitude clearly explained are far more in keeping with the principle that each child's personality is worthy of respect. Open condemnation often only makes matters worse, and makes it more difficult to reach any satisfactory solution to the problem later. Above all, a child's troubles are not loosely discussed with the parents of other children.

17. Conferences with parents about a child's behavior may be held, when such procedure seems helpful. Since in-school and out-of-school behavior are so closely interwoven, parent conferences may help the teacher discover conditions that cause school problems. Yet it is necessary for the teacher to guard against seeming to ask parents to solve her problems, and she should avoid what may seem to be rather aimless complaining.

It is important that the teacher prepare carefully for parent conferences. She may make a note of what she wishes to tell and what she wishes to ask, and of exactly what co-operation she hopes the parents will give her. She must be ready both to offer suggestions and to receive them. She must take care that the parents do not feel she is asking them to punish the child for her. Co-operative teacher and parent planning on an intelligent level must be the objective of such conferences.

18. A well-modulated, low-pitched voice does much to maintain an even, orderly classroom atmosphere. When a situation seems tense, the teacher may be able to resolve it by speaking pleasantly in a low and controlled voice, whereas a sharp, high-pitched comment might explode it. If a teacher constantly speaks loudly, rapidly, and in a high-pitched voice, feeling in the classroom will be tense and strained. The cultivation of a well-controlled and pleasing voice will do much to help the teacher maintain a good classroom atmosphere.

19. Poise and a sense of humor characterize the successful disciplinarian. The children may lose self-control, but the teacher simply never does so. Being calm and collected, even when a real effort is necessary to do so, will pay high dividends in classroom control. And the teacher who knows how and when to laugh is in one respect at least a good disciplinarian.

20. The effective teacher anticipates difficulties instead of being caught off guard by them. The alert teacher is not surprised by classroom control problems which emerge suddenly. She has thought through problems of hall traffic, congestion at the drinking fountain, lunch period management, and the distribution of books and like supplies before she undertakes to direct them. Necessary discussions with the children about school routines are provided for in time to meet emerging problems. The individual child who seems in need of guidance is helped before his case becomes too difficult.

Summary

The responsibility of guiding child behavior is a critical one for beginning teachers. This responsibility is, in essence, that of guiding growth in democratic behavior.

Discipline is always related to goals, or purposes. Different ways of behaving are appropriate when different kinds of activities are under way. Always, school discipline in form and in spirit must harmonize with the key democratic values of respect for individual personality, freedom, and justice and concern for the general welfare.

An understanding of child development—at least of its broad concepts—is essential to guidance of behavior. Children are active. They have basic personality hungers, including the need of security, love, success, approval, social recognition, and some freedom and self-direction balanced with adult support. An understanding of how children's behavior seeks satisfaction of these needs will do much to help the teacher guide growth in behavior.

Behavior is always complex. Many motives operate at any one time, often at the subconscious level. Teachers must therefore avoid snap judgments about the causes of behavior, and must adopt the attitude of sympathetic students of child growth. They must recognize that re-education is the important problem, and that this takes time.

Beginning teachers will find it helpful to follow certain practical suggestions for maintaining desirable school discipline. Twenty such suggestions have been offered.

Questions for Study and Discussion

1. Explain the meaning of the statement, "Discipline is related to goals."
2. Why is it important that school discipline exemplify the democratic values?
3. List and discuss the basic personality needs of children. How do these bear on discipline?
4. Why must the school recognize these basic needs in its instructional and administrative practices?
5. In what ways are individual differences in children related to the problem of discipline?
6. Is the child always aware of the motives which prompt his behavior? What implications has this for the teacher?
7. In what ways can the teacher make the classroom a favorable setting for desirable school behavior?
8. How are the teacher's personality and character related to her success in establishing and maintaining desirable discipline?
9. Discuss how parent-teacher conferences may contribute to child guidance; how the teacher plans for them; and what pitfalls to avoid.
10. In what ways can children share in the planning of school activities? In group responsibilities of school living? How may these situations be used as opportunities for guidance?

Activity

Invite a staff member from a child-guidance clinic or a child-welfare worker from some other agency to discuss with your class the kind of school program child-guidance workers would like to have developed in all schools.

Bibliography

Baldwin, Bird T.; Fillmore, Eva A.; and Handley, Lora, *Farm Children*. New York: D. Appleton and Company, 1930.

- Benedict, Agnes E., *Children at the Crossroads*. New York: The Commonwealth Fund, 1930.
- Bowen, Genevieve, *Living and Learning in a Rural School*. New York: The Macmillan Company, 1944.
- Dunn, Fannie W., and Everett, Marcia A., *Four Years in a Country School*. New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1926.
- National Education Association of the United States, Department of Rural Education, *Guidance in Rural Schools: Yearbook, 1942*, edited by Fannie W. Dunn. Washington, D.C.: The Association, 1942.
- Sheviakov, George V., and Redl, Fritz, *Discipline for Today's Children and Youth*. Washington, D.C.: National Education Association of the United States, Department of Supervision and Curriculum Development, 1944.
- Strang, Ruth, and Hatcher, Latham, *Child Development and Guidance in Rural Schools*. New York: Harper and Brothers, 1943.
- Weber, Julia, *My Country School Diary*. New York: Harper and Brothers, 1946.

PLANNING—AN IMPORTANT PART OF THE RURAL TEACHER'S WORK

PLANNING IS IMPORTANT in all human activities. It involves a clear understanding of goals to be reached, consideration of ways and means of achieving them, and awareness of the problems involved in doing so. Planning must be flexible and adaptable to changing situations. Evaluation is continuously involved, as a process of taking stock of progress made, revising methods, and looking ahead to the next steps. Planning is particularly important in the work of rural teachers because difficult problems of school organization and management are involved.

This chapter discusses the importance of planning in terms of an overview of the total school program. It suggests ways in which advance planning can make the opening of the school term successful. And it offers suggestions for making the daily program. Planning the year's work and the daily lesson is discussed.

The Teacher's Whole Philosophy of Education Reflected in Her Planning

Planning is more than just a matter of deciding what lessons to assign. Into her plans a teacher projects her whole philosophy of education. She builds her plans upon her real beliefs regarding the central questions of education. If she sincerely views her work as socially important and as personally challenging, her planning will

be broad, inclusive, and thorough. On the other hand, if she fails to sense the social significance of her work and is but casually interested in it, she may fall back on routine ways of doing things and be content with improvising.

What the teacher believes to be the important outcomes of education will also be reflected in her planning. If she believes the school's responsibility is limited to developing mastery of subject matter and the skills essential to such mastery, her planning will be limited largely to selecting assignments, scheduling recitations, providing for drill materials, and testing. She will be concerned chiefly with the child's achievement of the standards held for his grade. On the other hand, if she believes that personality growth also is important, her planning will be far more inclusive. She will plan a program with a rich variety of experiences outside books as well as with books, and she will question the wisdom of holding to rigid grade standards. If she looks upon discipline only as important to good study and recitation conditions, she will plan for enforcement of rules appropriate to that purpose. But if she views discipline as a process of guiding growth in democratic behavior, she will plan quite differently. If she thinks of playground activities only as necessary interludes in the real work of the school, she may treat them indifferently; but if she recognizes the possibilities of social learning in play periods, she will give much thought to their guidance. If she thinks of learning as a process of reading, listening, reciting, and remembering, she will plan for that kind of school. But again, if she looks upon learning as a process of deriving meaning from experience, then she will provide different activities.

In short, the teacher's whole philosophy of education is put to the test in how she plans. Planning is more than just a matter of scheduling events. *The beginning teacher, particularly, will do well to recognize that planning is a central problem in her work, one requiring serious and thoughtful attention.*

Advance Planning Needed to Start the Year Successfully

There is an old saying that "A good beginning is half the battle." The expression indicates how important it is that the opening days

of school be successful. To make them so, the teacher can begin her plans well in advance of opening day. Not least among the rewards of careful preparation is the feeling of security it gives the teacher. This is especially important to the beginning teacher who may find the first day of school rather frightening. If she knows that her preparation for it has been made carefully and that she is fully ready, it will not seem so.

The teacher can begin to study the community. The beginning teacher will find it worth while to visit the community a time or two before school opens to get a preliminary estimate of how the families live. She may note whether the homes seem well-kept, whether there appears to be a general level of prosperity among the homes or wide inequalities in types of homes from which the children come. She may note how accessible or isolated the homes are, what the people do for recreation, and how centrally the school is located. Of course the teacher cannot make a thorough study of the community at this early stage, but she can gain important preliminary knowledge about the backgrounds of the children who will be in the school. This knowledge, from the very first, will help give direction to the school program.

Important preliminary information may be secured from school officials. Before school opens, the teacher will want to meet the superintendent and the principal or, if it is a country school, the members of the board and any district or county supervisor with whom she will work. It is probable there will be at least one district or county meeting of rural teachers shortly before school begins. It is well to know what school policies are considered important by school officials, and what specific regulations are to be observed. These may or may not be stated in the contract she is given when appointed to the position. From school officials, the teacher will also learn how and when she can order new equipment and teaching materials.

All teachers have certain tasks for which they are legally responsible. These include such matters as making out attendance reports, teaching specified subject matter, perhaps reading daily from the Bible, and the like. It is important for the teacher to know and understand these responsibilities. How and when she is to be paid and what deductions, if any, are to be made from her salary for taxes and for retirement funds are questions school officials can answer. The

financial condition of the district and the general attitude of officials toward buying equipment will also be useful information. The teacher also must take the necessary steps to secure her license or certificate.

Apart from the securing of such information, it is important that the teacher know the school officials and establish friendly relations with them. She will frequently need their help and advice. It is likely they will take the initiative in meeting her and giving her the information she needs; but if they do not, then the teacher herself may properly take the initiative.

It is necessary to plan for living arrangements. Sometimes beginning teachers are hesitant about checking on living arrangements and leave the decision as to where they are to live to trustees or supervisors. This is hardly a policy to be recommended. Advice may be sought, and it may be very helpful; but the very practical problem of having a comfortable and restful place to live and good meals to eat are of primary importance. Teaching is hard and tiring work. A teacher must have a home that is comfortable, where she can enjoy privacy, and where she can both rest and work; and she needs an adequate and enjoyable diet.

It is best, if possible, to avoid living in a home from which children will come to the school—though this is not, by any means, a universal rule. When the selection of the home in which she will live has been made, it is wise for the teacher to reach a definite understanding on how much is to be paid and how her privacy is to be assured. After visiting the home, the teacher may plan to bring a few things with her from her own home to make the room more attractive and comfortable.

Some rural districts provide a teacherage, that is, an apartment for the teacher, either in the school building or in a separate structure near the school. Like the school buildings, some of these homes are modern, attractive, and comfortable, while others are far from that. Teachers' attitudes toward living in teacherages vary, too. Loneliness in some measure is a feature of teacherage life even at its best. On the other hand, there are definite advantages. The teacher does not have to live in a home from which children will come to her school. The possibility of becoming involved in family disputes is reduced. Living at the school makes it more convenient to start early morning fires,

to plan for school lunches, and to do the "odds and ends" of paper work and school housekeeping. With a radio, good books, and a car, loneliness need not loom as a very important consideration. Teacherage life assures privacy and independence. The teacher who is to live in one will want to visit it and note its decoration and furniture needs and plan for them. Getting the teacherage ready can be fun.

It will be helpful to learn as much as possible about the children in the school. In her preliminary planning, the teacher should seek to learn something about the children who will attend her school. Some rural schools, particularly farm village and consolidated schools employing supervisors or principals, have adequate records. Unfortunately, most country schools lack them. However, either in the school or in the county school office there will be some helpful data. There will almost certainly be a register from the preceding term with the names, ages, and grades of the children above first grade. It will show their attendance records and may tell something of their achievement in the school subjects. There may be separate records of standard test scores. Prospective first graders should be listed in the district's school census reports.

Health records may or may not be available. If there is a public health office in the county, it will have information about health conditions in the community and may have records of physically handicapped children. If the school records are complete, they will reveal something of each child's past school achievement, special interests, personality development, mental ability, and home background. The teacher will want to learn enough about the children at least to know what work must be planned for the first days of school. Beyond this minimum, the more she can discover of the needs, home backgrounds, and growth of the children, the better she is prepared to plan for them.

A careful review of the course of study is a necessary early step in planning. The teacher must become familiar with the course of study and learn how closely she is expected to follow it. State curriculum organization and state requirements differ. All states issue course-of-study bulletins, either separate bulletins for the various school subjects or a single bulletin for the total curriculum. In general, rural schools, especially country schools, are expected to follow the state courses of study more rigidly than are town and city schools.

It is still the usual practice in a number of states to require rural teachers to follow the course of study quite exactly. In some states, statewide subject-matter examinations are given in upper grades on materials outlined in the course of study. Such examinations further restrict the curriculum freedom essential to modern education.

There are a number of reasons why this is undesirable practice. Most important is the fact that it tends to prevent adaptation of curriculum experiences to the special needs and resources of particular communities and to the needs and abilities of individual children. Furthermore, many of the courses of study the rural teachers are asked to follow have been written by persons unfamiliar with both the special problems and the unique opportunities of rural schools.

Fortunately, as rural teacher education standards are raised and as supervision in rural schools is extended, the practice of requiring strict adherence to a course of study is less widely followed. Modern courses of study, too, are more flexible than the traditional ones. While they indicate general standards to be met and areas to be studied, they permit much teacher initiative in the actual planning of school experiences.

Whatever circumstances prevail, the teacher will do well to secure a copy of the course of study and review it thoroughly before the term opens. She should discuss it with the county superintendent and learn how closely she will be expected to follow it. She may make plans for co-operative development with the children of units not included in it; she may plan to seek permission to adapt certain units suggested in the course of study to the special resources and needs of the community. In general, it is true that if the course of study is a modern one, it will be of real help to the teacher. If she is to teach several grades, it will suggest how they are to be grouped for various work. It will give her an overview of the program for the year, and thus help her to lay out broad time-blocks for the total year's work. Long-range planning is an important step in the total planning job.

School equipment and instructional supplies can be inventoried and necessary building repairs noted. During her early visits to the community, the teacher will of course visit the school itself. She will note

the equipment and instructional supplies on hand. These may be checked in terms of the general program she plans to develop, and in terms of the books and supplies needed to follow the course of study. In a supervised school, the chances are that the needs for the coming term have been anticipated and new supplies of a general nature have been ordered. Even so, the teacher may wish to ask for certain supplementary items.

If the school is in the open country, it is likely the teacher must do her own checking of materials. In country schools she often must take the initiative in securing instructional supplies and materials. If she knows what children will attend, she is in a position to make plans and to list the materials needed to carry them forward. Particular attention must be given to the needs of lower-grade children, for in country schools these children must work by themselves much of the time. They need play and arts and crafts equipment, such as blocks, sand tables, easels and paints, clay, crayons, and doll play materials, as well as the books and workbooks which too often are all that is provided.

It is wise to place orders for books and other supplies well before school opens. Delivery of orders placed in September may be delayed because of the rush of business at that time. Teachers will find it helpful to discuss the needs of their schools with their county superintendents. They also can study the catalogues of school supply companies and check sample textbook shelves found in most supervisors' and superintendents' offices. Teachers should not hesitate to ask for necessary supplies and equipment, but it is important that they be ready to justify their requests by pointing out how the materials are to be used. Teachers have a right, and indeed an obligation, to insist that they not be handicapped by lack of essential supplies.

In addition to checking books and other instructional supplies, the teacher should give attention to building needs. The schoolroom may need redecorating and repairing. Windows may need to be replaced, or shades replaced and adjusted. If the toilets are outdoor ones, their condition must be noted. The source of drinking water should be inspected, and it may be well to submit a sample to the state health office to determine if the water is safe for use. The stove and chimney may need repair.

Many country school buildings and grounds are badly neglected and in need of attention. Often nothing is done about conditions because no one person feels responsible, hence no one takes the initiative in getting work done. The teacher can bring the necessary major repairs to the attention of board members and can plan what work she, the children, and the parents can do to make the building more attractive and more comfortable.

Advance plans may be made for routine activities. In schools, as in homes, there are certain activities which must be routinized. The exact procedures for best handling them will depend largely on how many children are involved. If the group is large, there is need for more definite procedures; if it is small, more informal ways of doing things will be appropriate.

Examples of activities to be handled in routine ways are those of entering and leaving the room, hanging up and getting wraps, getting drinks, distributing books and other supplies, handling playground equipment, and managing certain housekeeping duties. The teacher will want to talk over some of these matters with the children and decide co-operatively with them how best to handle them. For others she may wish to establish certain procedures. A good general rule to follow is to permit as much freedom and self-direction as possible. For example, in most schools there is no real need for children to ask permission to go to toilets or to get drinks. In small country schools it is not necessary to follow any prescribed procedure in passing into or out of the room. Even in graded schools with perhaps thirty or more children in a room about all that will be necessary is to have children "pass by rows" as they get their wraps and leave.

Children will share in many of the housekeeping routines. Responsibility may be assigned by the teacher or assumed by the children through a school service club organization. These chores are generally looked upon as privileges.

By advance planning for these routines, the teacher will be prepared to handle them from the very first day of school.

The first day must be planned with special care. It is very important that the first day of the term be a successful one. This gives the children a feeling that the teacher is one with whom they will enjoy

working, that school is going to be worth while. The beginning teacher will do well to plan carefully for her first day.¹

If the tentative daily program is placed on the blackboard, the children will know what the general schedule of the day is to be. Later, when the program has been formulated more definitely by co-operative teacher-pupil planning, it may be printed or typewritten and placed on the bulletin board. The bulletin board itself can be attractively and interestingly arranged for the first day, perhaps with pictures and other materials relating to a unit the teacher hopes to take up soon. The library table may have a display of interesting books appropriate to the different age groups in the school. Play materials for the lower-grade children, such as picture books, clay, paints, and blocks, can be placed in readiness for use.

Teaching plans for the work of this first day should be definite. If they are made in advance, the teacher is then left free to greet children as they arrive and to begin getting acquainted with them. Children may be allowed to choose their own seats, subject to later necessary rearrangement. Since seats may need adjusting, tools for doing so should be at hand. School should open promptly at the scheduled time. Enrollment may then be checked against the list of expected pupils. The first few minutes may be spent on some interesting opening exercises, or the teacher may proceed at once to secure personal data for registration forms. The data required will vary in different schools but will include as a minimum the full name, birth date, address, and name of parent or guardian for each child. The teacher or older children will need to help beginners with these forms unless the parents are present. Because birth dates on school records are accepted as authoritative, the birth certificates of the beginners should be checked.

There may be a discussion of summer vacation activities. Some time may be spent discussing plans for the year, though many rural teachers have found it wise to postpone such planning until the children feel more at home. Necessary plans for some of the routine activities will need to be made. Throughout the day the program should develop much as it will on succeeding days, and the children

¹An excellent article dealing with the first days of school is Clarice Whittenburg's, "The First Week: Setting up Classroom Procedures," in *The Instructor* for September, 1943, p. 17.

should be kept profitably busy at interesting and worth-while tasks. Some inventory tests may be given in such subjects as arithmetic and spelling, but it is not wise to give the day over wholly to testing. Activities for play periods may be discussed before recess periods, and some plan should be formulated for managing play equipment. It is well for the teacher to be ready to suggest games the first few days, and to be free to join the children on the playground.

The teacher may make notes of significant things she learns about individual children during the day, though it is best to do most of such systematic note-taking after school has closed for the day. She will be alert particularly for indications of strong individual and group interests suggestive of leads to units of work. She will note whether children from farm-labor families enroll, and perhaps check the register for the preceding year to see when they enrolled. She will note something of the physical condition of the children, and perhaps notice what they bring for lunch.

These observations are to be made unobtrusively; any "inspectorial" situation is to be avoided. As has been noted, many rural children are reserved and shy. Time is often required for them to enter freely into group activities and to talk easily in the group. The teacher will sense the group feeling in the school, which in some rural communities may be marred by family antagonisms or by class feelings.

All this does not mean that the first day of school will tell the teacher all she needs to know about the children. Rather it suggests that she can begin her study of the children at that time and plan for child development instead of merely for the teaching of subjects.

Sometime during the first day, probably best just before dismissal time, the teacher may explain what materials the children are to bring from home. It is well to prepare slips listing these items, at least for the lower-grade children.

Making a satisfactory daily program is a difficult problem in country schools. The planning of the daily program is very important. In a sense, the daily program sets the pattern for the kind of teaching to be done. In country schools, where work involves children of different ages, children in different grades, and all subjects, the problem is a peculiarly complicated one.

The problems are obvious. Not many years ago teachers were fol-

lowing daily programs with as many as forty separate "recitations," each but a few minutes in length. This was clearly both an impossible task for the teacher and an ineffective way of organizing learning experiences for children. Furthermore, it forced the teacher to make elaborate plans for work pupils were to do in out-of-recitation periods, and this in turn resulted in a large daily accumulation of written work to be checked. And since there were but few children in any one grade, the pupils seldom had experiences in group activities.

Several noteworthy procedures have been tried to solve these problems. Wofford suggests that all have had the same goals: "(a) to reduce the number of classes and recitation periods, (b) to extend the length of the class period with the teacher, (c) to enlarge the size of social groups."¹

One of the procedures most widely adopted is the plan of *combining and alternating grades*. Briefly, this procedure involves grouping grades together and teaching different subject matter in different years. Thus, grades one and two may be grouped for such subjects as social studies; grades three and four, for social studies and elementary English; and grades five and six, for most subjects. Similarly, grades seven and eight are made one instructional group. This reduces to four the instructional groups for much of the school work. The course of study is then arranged to fit the groups. For example, in social studies Group II (grades three and four) may study the home environment one year, and in the next year study type regions in far-away lands. Critics have pointed out that this plan may violate the logical and psychological sequence held desirable in some subjects, and that it may force children into work for which they are not ready. The difficulties encountered by children transferring from one school to another have also been pointed out. However, if the pattern is kept sufficiently flexible and if materials representing a wide range of reading difficulty are provided, these disadvantages are not serious. Some states have successfully grouped as many as three grades and have arranged the course of study in some subjects in three-year cycles. More recently, there have been experiments with all-school activities.

¹From Kate V. Wofford, *Modern Education in the Small Rural School*, p. 82. By permission of The Macmillan Company, publishers.

In such a unit, each child contributes to the central learning experience in terms of his own level of ability and in turn draws from it experiences suitable to his own level of achievement.

Another plan widely followed is the *alternation of subjects*. Subjects may be alternated by days, weeks, or school terms. One period a day may be provided for art and music, to be used for art one day and for music the next, and so on. Suggested daily programs, even of recent date, call for alternation of history and geography, and of physiology and civics, for example.¹ While this plan does reduce the number of class periods and provide longer ones, it seems an undesirable practice in some ways. Modern psychology stresses the importance of guiding learning through large, integrated, meaningful experiences and rejects the notion that learning can be successful if divided into too many separate, interrupted periods.

Another successful procedure is the *grouping of subjects* into large curriculum areas. History and geography and civics have been grouped as social studies in many courses of study. More is involved in such organization than mere combinations of subjects. A true social-studies curriculum represents not so much a combination of formerly separate subjects as a new approach to the central question of developing understanding of modern society. The same is true of other subject groupings, such as the language arts area where reading, writing, spelling, composition, and speech may be taught.

One of the more modern procedures, and a promising one, is the development of large, integrated *units of work*. Sometimes all eight grades are organized in such a unit. For example, the school may organize for a unit on "Safety." The children will participate and contribute according to their abilities. Thus all will join in many of the periods, when there is planning to be done and when reports are made and group discussions are held on various subtopics. Naturally, reading materials must be suited to the reading levels of the different children. The written work in connection with the unit also will be adjusted to the different ability levels of the groups. But all will be working together toward a common goal, and all will share in the culminating activity decided upon—perhaps a program for the parents, with a report on community safety hazards. As the unit develops, there will be many work periods when subject lines

¹John R. Slacks, *The Rural Teacher's Work*, p. 205.

are broken down and the reading, writing, composition, spelling, social studies, and arts and crafts activities all blend in the central area of interest.

Similar units may be developed on a wide variety of subjects. Some appropriate ones have been suggested. Such a unit may last five or six weeks or longer. It may occupy a period from one hour to several hours in the daily program. The organization of the curriculum in such units has the obvious advantage of reducing the number of classes and of integrating subject matter by relating it to a central, meaningful purpose. It has the further advantage of providing desirable social experiences through group work. Clearly, a teacher planning to use this procedure must make provision for it in her daily program.

Still another consideration in planning daily programs is the problem of time allotments for the various subjects. Many supervisors and county superintendents feel that unless teachers follow a fairly rigid daily program, there is danger that some subjects will be neglected. To meet this objection and yet make it possible for teachers to use flexible daily programs, some states now suggest basic time allotments for the major curriculum areas and ask only that teachers check their planning to make sure that each is given its full share of time. Montana, for example, suggests the following basic time allotments for subject matter and recreation for each day:

Health	40 minutes
Arithmetic	45 minutes
Music	20 minutes
Language arts	
Writing	10 minutes
Language	45 minutes
Spelling	15 minutes
Reading	60 minutes
Social studies	90 minutes
Two daily recesses	30 minutes
Noon lunchtime	60 minutes

NOTE: Art—one 90-minute period each week for learning skills; but application wherever practicable in any or all assignments during the week.

Concerning organization of the daily program in terms of these basic time allotments, the state supervisor offers this comment:

We call this the block system because we block the day into long periods of subject matter where all grades are working with the same subject matter at the same time. We do not stress any particular order of arrangement; but do suggest that grouping all the language arts subjects so that there can always be opportunity for simple adjustments to daily needs has distinct value. The short 10 and 15 minute periods for writing and spelling are for testing only; but development, study, and discussion might very logically come during a reading class one day or a language period on another, all of which may refer back to the social studies period. . . . The one definite demand is that the programs be of the "block" pattern with time allotments as suggested.¹

Tennessee provides general time allotments, also, but in somewhat different terms:

Flexibility is characteristic of a good program; but to insure a proper balance, definite allotments of time should be apportioned to these certain areas of experience.

Amount of Time

Kind of Work

$\frac{1}{3}$ or more of day

Democratic Group Activity

Large unit of work. Involves planning, investigating, observing, experimenting, creating, and evaluating.

$\frac{1}{3}$ of day

Skills

Reading, language, writing, spelling, and arithmetic.

$\frac{1}{6}$ of day

Problems in Daily Living

Lunch, rest, cleanliness, courtesy.

$\frac{1}{4}$ of day or less

Recreational, Creative, and Appreciative Activities

Physical education, art, music, literature, nature, individual interests.²

¹From a letter to the author from Lilian L. Peterson, Rural School Supervisor, Montana State Department of Education, January 17, 1946. Used by permission.

²Tennessee State Department of Education, *Living and Learning in Small Rural Schools*, p. 41. Reprinted by permission of Tennessee State Department of Education.

The plan of permitting teachers a good measure of freedom in the daily schedule, and yet of providing for proper emphasis on all major curriculum areas by suggesting time allotments, seems to be growing in favor. Likewise, the plan of having all grades work with the same subject at the same time is being more widely used.

To summarize ideas about the daily program, it may be said that experience has shown that daily programs suitable to modern methods of teaching can be developed to fit country school needs. The time when country teaching was a process of rushing through thirty or forty short recitation periods and supervising out-of-recitation periods for children in other grades at the same time is, happily, past. Experimental practices have demonstrated that even with all grades and all subjects, the teacher can organize the day into large blocks of time, develop learning through meaningful units, provide time for individual practice and drill work, and provide for group activities. All necessary uniformity may be assured by establishing time allotments for the major curriculum areas.

Appendix A presents several different types of daily programs for one-teacher and two-teacher schools. They are offered not for adoption but rather as examples of successful programs which may be helpful to teachers in planning their own.

Daily Planning a Continuing, Co-operative Responsibility of Teacher and Children

With careful advance planning for the opening of school and the development of a daily program fitted to modern school practices, the opening day should be successful. From then on, planning becomes a continuing process.

There is no set form for daily planning which is better than all others. Planning is an individual matter, and different teachers plan differently. All teacher-education institutions give students experience in using some plan form, and inexperienced teachers will probably wish to follow procedures familiar to them. They will find, though, that as they gain skill and confidence, their planning can be simplified and some of the details can be omitted.

Careful planning for class periods, in one arrangement or another, will include consideration of the following major problems:

1. Stating the objective or purpose.

Just what is to be accomplished during the class period? In answering this question for herself as she plans, the teacher's thinking will be clarified. As pupils share in planning, they too should establish purposes. One example may make this point clear. As children search for information for their reports in social studies, they may experience difficulty in locating material. The need for one or more class periods devoted to building skill in using reference books emerges. Such specific skills as those involved in using encyclopedias, finding topics in the indexes and tables of contents of textbooks, and the like may need to be stressed. These skills then become objectives in those class periods.

2. Outlining the subject matter to be taught or work to be accomplished.

The subject matter to be taught may well be outlined briefly by the teacher in her plan. This step is appropriate in planning arithmetic lessons or social-studies lessons, for example. Or it may take the form of listing the words to be used in the spelling lesson. If a definite statement of assignment is needed, it may be planned as a part of this step. In an activity work period, this step may involve thinking through just what work is to be done.

3. Introducing the lesson.

The way the period is opened sets the tone for the lesson. Pictures may be used. Thought-provoking questions may lead children to the central point for the period. In some projects, it may be necessary to recall where work left off yesterday. The introduction should set the children's purposes for the period.

4. Listing the learning activities and procedures to be used.

These may take several different forms. There may be silent study and the preparation of written reports, questions to be answered, committee work, construction work, preparation for oral reports, group discussion, reading of reports, excursions away from school, viewing and discussing models or other exhibits, the use of motion pictures, listening to the phonograph or radio. Planning must be definite in

terms of how the period is to be developed; and if questions from the teacher are to guide discussion, these questions should be thought out in some detail.

5. Planning what materials to use.

This step grows naturally out of the preceding one. Planning, both by teacher and children, should be specific in terms of the materials to be used.

6. Summarizing or evaluating.

A well-rounded lesson plan provides for "tying together" the work of the period. It may be a brief summary discussion of work accomplished. Evaluation will often be involved in this step, as an analysis of progress made, and this in turn will lead to future work periods.

Many rural districts supply teachers with daily lesson plan books. These books are useful, but the spaces provided for plans in each subject are too small for anything more than sketchy notes. Too, the books are organized for a program of separate lessons rather than for large units of work. Some teachers keep their plans in large loose-leaf notebooks. Whatever form is used, plans should always be made for several days in advance, at least in general outline. It is helpful, too, to use several pages at the front of the plan book for rough outlines of the term's work, and to use these plans as a check on progress now and then. Inexperienced teachers sometimes find it helpful to leave a space at the end of each day's plans and to take a few minutes at the close of the day to review the written plans and write a statement or two evaluating the day's work. By this self-criticism they learn what procedures are successful and what to avoid doing, and their thinking is directed to the needs of the children.

Rural teachers have to plan not only for the groups with which they will work at different periods but for groups which must work independently. For younger children, especially, the out-of-recitation periods require careful planning. The problem is not so difficult if the school has an abundance of material. If there are adequate supplementary reading materials (including many good picture books), a sand table, construction materials, and arts and crafts supplies, then the children will not find it difficult to decide what

“to do next.” Much work related to activities growing out of the units of work may be done during these out-of-recitation periods. Also, many of the routine schoolroom duties may be taken care of at those times.

One way of helping children grow in ability to plan their own work is to have a short group-planning period each morning. During this period the children review progress made in their work the previous day, think of unfinished work or the next steps in their activities, and share in planning their work for the present day. Older children may share more fully in such periods than the younger children.

Finally, the teacher must check her planning from time to time to be sure she is giving a fair share of her time to each child and to each group. Some children will need more of her time than others. Children in lower grades, naturally, will need much guidance in their learning. Too often rural teachers who find themselves confronting state examinations or county examinations for upper-grade children neglect the younger ones. The dilemma may be solved, in part, by helping older children develop skill in planning and in independent work.

Summary

Planning characterizes all successful human activities. It involves clear perception of purposes, evaluation, and flexibility in procedures. Inexperienced teachers will do well to give much thought to planning their work. It is through their plans that they project their philosophy of education.

Some planning can be done before school opens. The teacher can then begin her study of the community, meet school officials and learn their policies and regulations, and reach definite understandings on such matters as her special responsibilities, her pay, her teaching certificate, and like matters. Living arrangements can be completed. A study of the children can be begun. The course of study can be reviewed, and careful preliminary long-range planning can be started. The teacher can begin to collect instructional materials of her own and can inventory the school equipment and sup-

plies on hand. Orders for needed materials may be placed early enough to insure prompt delivery. The first day must be planned with special care.

The development of a workable daily program is a central problem in planning. A good program is so arranged that periods are not too great in number nor too short in length, and it provides for group experiences. Time allotments for the major curriculum areas provide helpful guidance and yet permit flexibility in the program.

Daily planning is a continuous task, to be shared by the teacher and the children. The needs of groups working with the teacher and of those working independently must both be anticipated and provided for. The teacher's time must be distributed fairly. The long-range plan, in terms of scheduling time for all necessary work during the year, develops as the year passes but must be kept in mind continuously.

Questions for Study and Discussion

1. Why is planning so important?
2. What information about the children will it be helpful for the teacher to secure before school opens?
3. What factors will it be wise for the new teacher to keep in mind as she makes her living arrangements?
4. How will a careful review of the course of study help in long-range planning?
5. What steps can the teacher take to make the school building and grounds ready for the opening of school?
6. In planning for the first day of school, for what activities and routines will the teacher make preparation?
7. What are the problems involved in planning a daily program for a country school?
8. Discuss the advantages and the disadvantages that result from *alternating subjects*; from *combining and alternating grades*.
9. Discuss, in general terms, the advantages and procedures involved in developing *all-school units* in such subjects as the social studies.
10. Discuss the essential elements in a good daily lesson plan.

Activities

1. Secure copies of the daily program for rural schools recommended or required by your State Department of Education. Study it carefully and critically and report on it.
2. Study the daily programs in Appendix A. How do they illustrate the statement made in this chapter that "In a sense, the daily program sets the pattern for the kind of teaching to be done"?
3. Secure copies of your state course of study for rural schools. What provision is made for grouping grades? For alternating subjects? For units of work in which several or all grades may join?
4. Each member of the class by this time probably has begun collecting and filing teaching materials—newspaper clippings, pictures, maps, posters, and the kinds of materials issued free by commercial companies. Arrange some systematic way of filing these materials and for sharing worth-while "discoveries" with other members of the class.
5. Many country schools enroll so few children that it is difficult to organize group games during play periods. Assign a committee the task of collecting directions for games suitable for small groups of children. Have copies made for all members of the class.
6. Indoor play periods, necessary in bad weather, are sometimes difficult to plan for and to manage. Here, too, advance preparation is important. Assign a committee to list and give directions for activities suitable for indoor play periods. Have copies made for the members of the class. (Ask experienced teachers for suggestions, review game books, and see the article by Clarice Whittenburg, "Indoor Games at Recess," in *The Grade Teacher* for October, 1944, p. 40.)

Bibliography

- Bowen, Genevieve, *Living and Learning in a Rural School*. New York: The Macmillan Company, 1944.
- Burton, William H., *The Guidance of Learning Activities*. New York: D. Appleton-Century Company, 1944.

- Dunn, Fannie W., and Everett, Marcia, *Four Years in a Country School*. New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1926.
- National Education Association of the United States, Department of Rural Education, *Newer Types of Instruction in Small Rural Schools: Yearbook, 1938*. Washington, D.C.: The Association, 1938.
- Slacks, John R., *The Rural Teacher's Work*. Boston: Ginn and Company, 1938.
- Smith, Donnal V., and Frederick, Robert W., *Live and Learn*. New York: Charles Scribner's Sons, 1938.
- Tennessee State Department of Education, *Living and Learning in Small Rural Schools*. Nashville, Tenn.: State Department of Education, 1943.
- Weber, Julia, *My Country School Diary*. New York: Harper and Brothers, 1946.
- Wofford, Kate V., *Modern Education in the Small Rural School*. New York: The Macmillan Company, 1938.
- , *Teaching in Small Schools*. New York: The Macmillan Company, 1946.

EVALUATING CHILD GROWTH AND DEVELOPMENT

EVALUATION AND PLANNING, two important aspects of the teaching and learning process, are closely interdependent. Both are involved in all of the on-going activities of the schoolroom. *Planning* sets the goals and charts the procedures by which the goals may be realized. *Evaluation* is the process of appraising the progress made toward those goals. Data gathered by evaluation procedures are useful only as they facilitate effective planning for further guidance and direction of the learning experiences of the children.

The broad topic of measurement and evaluation is a difficult one with which to deal in a single chapter. It involves technical processes and terminology. In short, it is a technical field in which a high level of specialized training is needed. Yet the fact remains that all teachers must and do evaluate child growth and learning as part of their daily work. In a general way, a distinction can be made between the work of the specialist and the work of the teacher in measurement and evaluation. The concern here is with the teacher's activities and with basic principles which point the way to intelligent appraisal of pupil growth and achievement.

A brief review of the history of the measurement and evaluation movement is given in the first section. This section emphasizes recent and significant trends in the evaluation movement. The second section states in practical terms some important general principles of evaluation, as guideposts to modern practices. The third and final section describes evaluation instruments and procedures available to rural teachers, and gives suggestions on how to use them.

The Measurement and Evaluation Movement Briefly Reviewed

Today a wide variety of standardized tests and scales is used in public schools. New procedures give teachers much useful data about the personality and social development of individual children. Some of the techniques and procedures are elaborate and technical, and much skill and effort goes into their preparation. It is difficult to realize that for the most part the significant developments in this special field have been made within the present century.

Until about 1900, however, only limited progress had been made. The foundations for later rapid development of new ways of measuring and evaluating had been laid before the turn of the century, in the development of statistical method, in the scientific study of individual differences, and in crude but promising attempts to measure intelligence. Measurement and evaluation in the schools, however, was limited to use of oral questioning and written essay-type examinations, and to the informal but important personal observations which have always characterized good teaching.

Since 1900 there has been a long series of rapid and significant developments. There was, first, the development of standardized tests and scales to measure achievement in school subjects. Before World War I, tests were developed in arithmetic, handwriting, spelling, and composition. These standardized tests won wide acceptance in the schools, chiefly because educators had come to realize how inaccurate and unreliable the old marking systems, based on essay-type examinations, had been. A number of research studies had clearly shown that different teachers assigned widely different marks to the same paper and even that a single teacher would assign the same paper different marks at different times. The new standardized tests seemed to meet a very real need.

Within a few years, the use of objective-type test items in teacher-made tests in the school subjects was being advocated. This led, in a short time, to the almost exclusive use of objective-type items—true-false, completion, multiple-choice, and matching tests. Not only did these make for greater reliability, but they made it possible to sample more widely from the subject matter for which the tests were devised.

Rapid progress was made also in the development of intelligence tests. The *Stanford Revision of the Binet Scale*, based on a scale developed earlier by French psychologists, appeared in 1916. Other individual intelligence tests followed. During World War I, progress was made in the development and interpretation of group intelligence tests, chiefly through work with men in the United States Army. These developments were reflected in the years just after the war in the appearance of many new group intelligence tests, and in a widespread interest in intelligence testing.

With these rapid developments, it was perhaps only natural that the trend toward use of standardized school achievement tests, intelligence tests, and objective-type teacher-made examinations went to extreme lengths. By the late 1920's a tidal wave of testing swept the schools. It seemed to educators that, at long last, they were able to measure quite exactly how each child, each class, and each school stood in achievement in almost any subject or in all subjects together; and also how each child's achievement in the school subjects compared with his intelligence, or his natural ability to learn. To say that the schools took full advantage of these new possibilities would be an understatement. In many schools, testing just for the sake of testing seemed to be the order of the day.

More recently, attention was called to some serious shortcomings of such testing programs. It was pointed out that the new tests did not provide any sure way to evaluate growth in *social adjustment*, in *attitudes*, or in *character*, and that only with difficulty could the tests be adapted to measure *understanding*. In fact, a good many educators began to feel that the excessive zeal displayed for pupil achievement in the subjects for which tests were available caused teachers to neglect those other important areas of child growth. The tests measured, chiefly, ability to recall factual material. Teachers were pressed to have their pupils achieve satisfactorily on the tests; hence they focused their attention largely on fact-learning. Furthermore, it was pointed out that too often there was a wide gap between the objectives set up for instruction and the subject matter through which the objectives presumably were realized, yet the measurement program dealt with the subject matter only. Clearly, an assumption of dubious validity was involved. Finally, there was increasing awareness that children live and learn as total persons, with a corollary

weakening of faith in mechanical laws of learning. Many educators came to question the wisdom of measurement that dealt with numerous but isolated bits of subject matter.

Because of these recognized limitations, recent efforts have been directed toward measurement and evaluation of the more intangible but important goals of education. The modern point of view sets measurement and evaluation programs in the perspective of total child growth. Experimental practice is concerned with the development of evaluation techniques and instruments for the broader, more human purposes of education. The wider scope of interest today is reflected in the terminology. There is a decreasing emphasis on *measurement*, and a corresponding increase in emphasis on *evaluation*. The newer emphasis is more on *guiding* and less on *judging* child behavior and learning. In modern schools, less time, less money, and less human energy go into testing than was true some years ago, but the testing which is done is more significant for promoting pupil adjustment.

General Principles as Guideposts to Modern Evaluation Practices

Just as there are certain general guideposts to effective planning, so too there are underlying principles pointing the way to effective evaluation practices. These principles have been implied, at least, in the preceding review of the historical development of the measurement and evaluation movement. A more explicit statement of them follows.

1. Evaluation must relate to the objectives being served. This guiding principle is rooted in the very nature of evaluation. Evaluation cannot be undertaken without reference to some goal, some standard, some behavior judged to be worth while and desirable. Evaluation, consisting essentially of the process of taking stock of progress made, presupposes at least a tentative answer to the question, "Progress toward what?" Nevertheless, in spite of the obvious relationship between *objectives* and *evaluation*, this relationship is often ignored in practice.

An example will make this clear. It is generally agreed that an important objective in the language arts is to build a growing ap-

preciation of good literature. It is assumed that this is done through guiding children's reading of what is held to be good literature at their developmental levels. When it comes to measuring, however, the test content and procedure too often are limited wholly to the content of the reading which has been provided. Evaluation consists of determining how much factual material about authors, characters, and so on the child is able to recall. It may be desirable for the child to know all this, but knowing it does not necessarily mean that the child has grown in appreciation of good literature. Many a child is able to recall quite satisfactorily the authors and characters of the so-called classics—at least long enough to pass a test on them—but still prefers the comics. Any true evaluation of a child's growth in appreciation of good literature must be a continuing process of noting his free reading choices, of appraising his understanding and his sympathetic response to what he reads. Similarly, in other subjects, measurement is too often limited to the recall of factual data from the subject matter through which the objectives are presumably realized.

Consideration of this principle will give the teacher a perspective in which to view evaluation. It does not imply that the testing of subject-matter mastery is useless. Clearly, such testing has a perfectly valid place in the total program. It should, however, create an awareness that evaluation must relate to the objectives being served and that it is the objectives, not the subject matter through which they are to be realized, that dictate the nature of the evaluation program.

2. *The on-going school program should determine what measurement and evaluation procedures are useful.* This point is simply an extension of the logic set forth in the preceding discussion of how objectives and evaluation are related. Evaluation must grow out of what goes on in the school. Too often quite the reverse is true, and the knowledge of the evaluation to be made actually sets the teaching and learning procedures.

Within a general framework laid down by courses of study or by supervisory conferences and bulletins, each teacher and group of children must develop their own learning experiences. As a practical example, suppose a teacher finds a fifth-grade boy or girl for whom a thorough reteaching of the basic multiplication and division facts

is clearly indicated as worth while. The part of wisdom and common sense is to take time for this instruction. The evaluation to be made some weeks later is also quite clear. It will consist of finding out how well the child has learned the facts and whether his attitude has changed, whether he has gained or lost in confidence in his ability to do the arithmetic work. But if the teacher knows that at the end of the school month or the six-week period her fifth grade is to be given a test over the first steps in long division, and perhaps that her school's rating will be published along with those of other schools in her county, she may feel compelled to plunge the pupil into the new work whether he is ready for it or not. Too often, instead of growing out of and relating back to learning experiences, the evaluation sets a uniform pattern of subject matter to be taught and of time limits for teaching it.

This does not mean that standardized tests have no proper uses. Such tests are based on general curriculum patterns and are generally suitable for all schools. This principle does raise serious questions, however, about the use of county-wide subject-matter tests based on uniform subject-matter assignments. Where this is the practice, evaluation tends to set rigid patterns of school life rather than to be a natural part of the on-going learning experiences. Used in this way, evaluation procedures are directed toward an end they were never designed to serve.

3. Interpretation of evaluation data must rest on a clear acceptance of the fact that children differ. It is sheer folly to hold a common expectancy for all children. Children learn to walk and to talk at different ages. They cut teeth at different times. They come to school with different backgrounds of experience, different vocabularies, different mental capacities. They differ in emotional stability and in physical vitality. These differences not only will persist in spite of anything the schools do, but many of them actually will become more marked as the children grow older. This diversity in individuals is one of the essential strengths of a people, for from it come the many different kinds of workers and the varied talents needed for a complex society. Yet some schools have seemed to operate on the assumption that all children are alike and can and should reach uniform levels of achievement. Any such expectancy is a hopeless one. If acted upon, it inevitably produces failure and frustration for some.

Modern evaluation programs focus on evidence of each child's growth and learning. The intelligent interpretation of evaluation data for any child is based on what is known of his individual growth.

4. Modern evaluation procedures help children develop skills in self-evaluation. Self-evaluation is important, for it is necessary to intelligent self-direction of behavior. This, in turn, is essential for democratic citizenship. Children need to develop acceptable and realistic standards, and to develop skill in appraising their own behavior and their own work in terms of those standards. Too often the older kinds of measurement and evaluation led children to look wholly to the teacher's evaluation for evidence of their own growth and learning. In modern schools, children help to plan their work, and by the same token they help to evaluate it both while it is under way and after it has been completed. For example, children can carry on group discussion of such questions as, "How well did the work period go today?" "How can it be a better work period tomorrow?" Individually, they may keep records of their own progress. They can keep samples of their work—of handwriting, for example, or of written reports—to be used for comparison with later efforts. In these and other ways they develop skill in self-evaluation.

5. Modern evaluation is a comprehensive, inclusive, continuous process. It is set in the perspective of total child growth. This necessarily involves consideration of all aspects of child growth, and also of factors outside the child as they bear on his development. Hence evaluation deals with the measurement of fact-learning and the growth of understanding in the content of the school subjects, with the appraisal of intelligence, with both physical and mental health and with the child's social relationships, interests, personality, and environment. It sees these not as separate categories for collection of data, but as interrelated parts of the total process of child growth.

In this perspective, evaluation is more than a periodic process of checking on subject-matter mastery. It is rather a continuous process of gathering and interpreting data significant to child guidance.

6. Modern evaluation makes use of a variety of instruments and procedures. This principle is implied by the preceding one. There are proper uses for standardized tests—tests of intelligence, tests of achievement, and diagnostic and prognostic tests. There are proper

uses for teacher-made tests, both of the objective and the essay type. But these are not the only instruments for evaluation. Modern evaluation employs observational procedures, records of child behavior in natural situations, forms for convenient collection and use of data on the child's home and community life, reports of interviews and conferences with the child and with his parents, and reports of home visits, of the child's school attendance, and of his physical condition. There are techniques available for studying the child's status in his group, for inventorying his interests, and for studying his personality. Not all of these are suitable for use by every classroom teacher, nor are they all needed by every teacher. Yet it is significant that so wide a variety of instruments and procedures is available.

7. The purpose of evaluation is to make the guidance and direction of learning activities more effective. This thought seems a truism, yet it requires some emphasis. The real purpose of evaluation is to provide data for guiding children's learning experiences, not to provide data for judging children or teachers. The reference is to the future, though the process naturally involves consideration of present status and past gains.

Thus the end-of-the-year records for any child are not adequately completed when all test papers are marked and the marks for the year are averaged and neatly recorded in the grade book or register. Rather, they are adequate when the child's cumulative record folder contains evidence on which new planning may proceed. What evidence is there for answers on these points: What are this child's strengths? his strong interests? his specific difficulties in the school subjects? his social adjustment? his health condition? What are his work habits? These suggest the types of data it is desirable to have available. Clearly, the value of such data is in their use for the child's guidance.

8. Evaluation is valid only when based on valid evidence. There remains much value for teachers in those pioneer studies which show the inaccuracies and unreliability of teacher evaluation of children's work when arrived at subjectively. The enthusiasm for objectivity in testing some years ago undoubtedly went too far, and it is recognized now that there are important aspects of human growth for which objective evaluation is difficult. Even so, teachers are wise to hold as firmly as possible to evidence and to question conclusions



J. G. Allen and Son
The Farm Family Works Together in
the Fields



J. G. Allen and Son
Leisure Hours Are Enjoyed Together
in the Home



Soil Conservation Service
Seventh-Grade Pupils in South Carolina
Study Soil Erosion



Courtesy of Eva Larson, Wyoming State Dept. of Education
Children Share in Refinishing Desks and Redecorating the Schoolroom



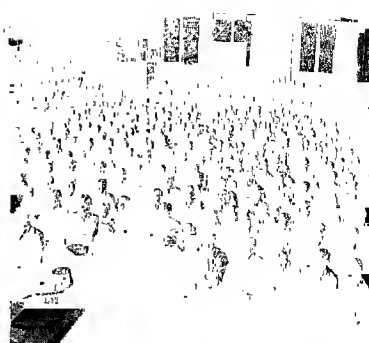
Eva Luoma

**A Farm Club's Entries at the County Fair
Win Many Prizes**



Acme Photo

**Foods Frozen and Stored in Refrigeration
Plants Can Be Kept for Months**



J. C. Allen and Son

**Indiana Farmers Meet to Study Agri-
cultural Problems**



Ewing Galloway

**Even the Lobsters Fly to Market
Nowadays**



Courtesy of St. Louis Board of Education

**Parents Learn New Procedures in Food
Preparation**

—including their own—which cannot be defended on available evidence.

This implies a need to search for causes. Is this child “lazy” or is he simply chronically tired or is his general physical vitality at low level? Why? Or is he simply not interested? Has he learned from bitter experience that there is little point in trying to do school tasks? Is another child “inattentive” or is his hearing impaired? These examples serve to indicate the need for relying on evidence. Modern evaluation procedures avoid “labeling” children. Instead, they seek to advance the teacher’s understanding of the children and of their needs.

Evaluation Instruments and Procedures of Value to Rural Teachers

Just what evaluation tools and procedures are of practical value in rural schools? As indicated earlier, a wide variety of evaluation instruments and procedures is available. No teacher need use all of them. Indeed, some of them should be used only by persons with special training.

1. *Intelligence tests.* It is desirable that the teacher know the intelligence level of the children. However, the giving, scoring, and interpreting of intelligence tests must be done by persons with proper training. Few teachers are qualified to give these tests and to interpret the results. Many county school officials and special staff members in state departments of education do intelligence testing in rural schools. The teacher can usually secure this help by asking for it.

Individual intelligence tests give much more reliable results than do group intelligence tests. Children’s I.Q.’s, or *intelligence quotients*, based on group tests are far from representative of exact measures of ability to learn. The group test gives a good picture of the ability of the group as a whole. Whenever possible, and particularly for slow-learning children, individual tests should be given.

Even after the intelligence tests have been given, there is still need for sensible interpretation of the results. There are different types of intelligence. Saucier lists and explains them as follows:

They are: mechanical intelligence, or ability to construct and manipulate things; social intelligence, or ability to live with and to

influence people; and abstract intelligence, or ability to grasp and use ideas.¹

It is with the last-named type that intelligence tests usually deal. This is the type of learning which has largely occupied the teacher's attention in traditional schools. The teacher must always remember, however, that it is not the only type of intelligence. Furthermore, there is not complete agreement even among psychologists on the real meaning and nature of intelligence. Research has shown that environment, particularly during the preschool years, does influence the intelligence quotient. The question of how constant the I.Q. is has been seriously debated. It is a safe generalization to assert that intelligence tests do measure not only native capacity to learn but past opportunities for learning as well. Strang and Hatcher comment as follows on this point:

The test results may not reveal the child's potential ability, but the development of that ability in which limited opportunity has played an important part. Accordingly, the teacher should interpret the test results in the light of the child's previous schooling and recent stimulation to learn.²

This point has special relevance for rural schools. A number of careful studies have shown that rural children rate lower on intelligence tests than do city children. Does this mean that the rural population is, by and large, less intelligent than the urban population? Some authorities reject this conclusion and point out that city children are more familiar than rural children with timed tests and with objective-type questions, both of which are involved in group intelligence tests. Further, some intelligence test items deal with matters most city children know but few rural children do, and test norms have been established largely on the performance of city children. To the extent that intelligence tests measure past learning as well as native learning ability, city children have an educational advantage over rural children because city school terms are longer, city teachers are better educated, and city schools have more nearly adequate instructional materials.

¹From W. A. Saucier, *Theory and Practice in the Elementary School*, p. 16. Used by permission of The Macmillan Company, publishers.

²Ruth Strang and Latham Hatcher, *Child Development and Guidance in Rural Schools*, p. 37. Used by permission of Harper and Brothers, publishers.

In any event, intelligence test results are not to be looked upon as infallible measures of any child's ability to learn. It is well to supplement the findings of intelligence tests by careful observation of the children—how alert they are, their general understanding of things about them, the range of topics in their conversations, and the general competence shown in daily tasks.

Indications of the child's capacity to learn—including both the results of intelligence tests and informal observations of the child—are useful only as they help to fit the curriculum to his needs. Labeling children "dumb" or other like terms should never result. It is also well to be cautious about disclosing the results of intelligence tests, for several reasons. Such information is of a professional nature; it is not for general distribution. The test results themselves are subject to some reservations, as has been pointed out. Finally, interpretation of the results calls for special understanding which a good many parents do not have. Any discussion of a child's capacity to learn should be limited to general terms.

2. Standardized achievement tests. These tests serve a variety of purposes, and they are very helpful if properly used. General achievement tests, particularly, are widely used in rural schools. There are several well-known ones on the market. They usually may be secured either in "partial battery" or "complete battery" form. The complete batteries include achievement tests in most school subjects; the partial batteries measure only in the core subjects. The tests are available in equivalent forms, that is, in forms prepared with different test items but equated in content and norms. Direction manuals provide specific instructions for giving the tests.

Usually both *age norms* and *grade norms* are provided. By using tables in the manual, the teacher can translate a child's scores in the various subjects into "age equivalents" or "grade equivalents." For example, at the beginning of the fifth grade a child's age may be slightly over ten years. His school grade is, obviously, 5.0. On a general achievement test his *arithmetic age equivalent* may be a few months higher than his real age; and his *arithmetic grade equivalent* may be, say, 5.4. In short, this child's achievement in arithmetic is that of children slightly older than himself and a few months ahead of him in school—in terms of the performance of the large numbers on whose scores the test norms were established. The same logic

holds for what the general achievement test reveals of his standing in other subjects. From the separate subjects, his average can be computed. In the same way, the general achievement of the class and of the school can be established.

These general achievement tests are useful in gaining an over-all answer to such practical questions as, "How well is this child achieving?" "How does this school stand?" "What gains in subject-matter achievement have been made this year?" They are useful in individual pupil guidance, especially if the teacher takes time to analyze the types of errors made and thus identifies individual weaknesses and needs.

There is perhaps a special value in general achievement tests for the teacher who adopts newer practices in her school. Possible criticism of new ways of doing things may be met if evidence is secured to show that adequate subject-matter achievement is being maintained.

There are some important cautions to be observed in interpreting and using the results of standardized achievement tests. It must be remembered, first of all, that the test results tell nothing about the *quality* of the learning experiences the children have had. It is perfectly possible to create serious emotional problems in children through bringing concentrated pressure to bear on subject-matter mastery. No high rank on an achievement test is worth emotional instability or serious unhappiness for any child. If a teacher nags, threatens, and quarrels in the classroom in the name of "high standards," then the quality of the learning experiences, in terms of their real effects on the children, is such that the test results, no matter how high, are not worth what they cost. Furthermore, individual differences in ability and in past experiences of the children are such that they will inevitably achieve different results. Some children never do achieve reading ability representative of the average for children of their ages. Norms, by their very nature, are kinds of averages for children of a given age or at a given grade level; and it is to be expected that the achievement of some children will be below the norm and that of others above it. Nor is the achievement revealed for any child to be regarded as an absolute and certain measure of his exact growth since the preceding test. Growth and learning curves characteristically are uneven, and at best any

achievement test score represents only a momentary glimpse of the child's status at any given time. For this reason, it is much more significant to consider a child's performance over a period of time than to consider a single test result. A teacher who can study a child's achievement test record for the past three or four years can note the pattern his learning curves follow. This is not possible when only a single test result is available.

There is not complete agreement as to how often or at what time during the term general achievement tests should be given. In some schools, tests are given both at the beginning and at the end of the term. If only one test is given during the term, it is generally given at the close of the term; but there is a good deal of weight to the point of view held by some teachers, that if given early in the term it would be more useful in guiding school work.

3. *Standardized reading-readiness tests.* As with the general achievement tests, there are available a good many different reading-readiness tests and some general readiness-for-learning tests. These provide objective evidence helpful in deciding how soon the child may wisely be started in the basic reading program. It is to be noted, of course, that factors other than those measured by such tests also influence the decision—the child's emotional stability, habits of attention, general health, vision, hearing, and speech.

4. *Standardized diagnostic tests.* Diagnostic tests are available in different subjects, being most numerous and most useful in the skill subjects. Their value is in aiding the teacher to identify specific weaknesses as a basis for remedial work. In many cases, however, these learning difficulties can be identified by careful study of a child's daily work or of his past school record, and by analysis of his work on the general achievement tests.

5. *Personality inventories and scales.* As schools have come to accept increased responsibility for total child growth, there has been increased effort to deal with personality development. There are available today a number of different rating scales, inventories, and tests dealing with child behavior, social adjustment, interests, and emotional adjustment. Because of the intangible and complex nature of what is called personality, measurement in this area is never exact. The teacher who is sincerely concerned about knowing her children can gain new insight into their needs, both as individuals

and as a group, through judicious use of some of the newer procedures in the field of personality study.

6. **Teacher-made tests and examinations.** In addition to using commercially available measurement instruments, the teacher still needs to make tests herself. There will be need to check the subject-matter mastery of units of work in various subjects, to check reading and study skills, and to discover whether the children have achieved certain understandings toward which the teaching has been directed. Tests serve to review material and to help the children to organize ideas and to evaluate their own progress. For some purposes, fairly elaborate tests will be needed; for others, simple check exercises will serve. Skill in test construction is a real asset to a teacher.

Teacher-made tests may be classified generally as *objective-type* and *essay-type*. A single test may include items representative of both types. Both types have their proper uses.

Objective-type items make it possible to sample more widely the subject matter the test seeks to cover, and they make for objectivity and ease in scoring. There are different types of objective test items, true-false, multiple-choice, completion, and matching exercises being those most commonly used. Experience has established certain general rules for the construction of objective-type test items. Obviously, each item should deal with content that is significant and of value. Test items should be short, simple, and clearly worded, and they should be so arranged that test papers can be checked easily and quickly. In general, the early items should be fairly easy, with the more difficult ones placed at the end of the test. Teachers have found it helpful to keep a "test item" file on note cards during the development of units of work. This makes construction of the final test much easier, and it probably assures a better test. It is usually advisable to make up a first draft of the test, then edit it a day or two later.

The essay-type question, as pointed out earlier in the chapter, fell into serious disrepute after research studies showed how unreliable were marks based on such test items. However, the essay-type test item has certain unique values. It can deal with the "how," the "explain," and the "why" type of exercise, providing excellent experience in organization and expression of ideas. Carefully constructed discussion questions, if suited to the intellectual levels of the children

for whom they are designed, provide good learning experiences and help the teacher to appraise pupil progress.

7. Anecdotal records of child behavior. Modern schools make use of what are called "anecdotal records" in studying children. This technique is particularly useful in those areas of child growth where objective-type and essay-type examinations are not suitable. Stated in simple terms, the anecdotal record is a record of significant child behavior in certain natural situations. If kept faithfully, the record comes to include a series of short, factual, reportorial paragraphs. The teacher can review these periodically and add a paragraph of her own with her interpretation and comments and plans for future guidance. The anecdotes recorded should be stated objectively. In a sense, they are like the news columns in a newspaper, and the teacher comments may be likened to the editorial columns. The following samples of anecdotal records will suggest their nature.

The following note was entered about a sixth-grade boy whose physical development was retarded:

April 26. At recess I found Billy sitting on the front steps. He was almost in tears. "I can't hit the ball," he said. "The other kids try to pitch me easy ones and I can't even hit them then."

The second example was noted during a fifth-grade unit on "Our National Parks":

January 16. John was elected, yesterday, to be chairman of one of the committees—his first such chance this year. He came to school this morning with a neatly lettered "Job Sheet" on which, at the end of our work period, he showed me just what task each member of his committee was to do. "Now we won't waste time getting started," he said.

The final example is a report on the behavior of a third-grade boy during a work period when different groups were sketching sections of a large frieze showing different ways of travel:

May 9. Henry wandered around, looking over the shoulders of other children, offering unsolicited and unflattering comments. When I asked him why he was not working with his group, he said, "Aw, they don't want me around."

Even these brief examples tell something of what kind of person each child is. The making of such records requires some skill. The teacher must be selective in making observations and skilled in reporting and interpreting behavior. Good anecdotal records are factual, leaving interpretation and comment for periodic summaries. It makes for more definite recording if certain general descriptions of desirable behavior in certain situations are prepared to guide observations. For example, a description may be drawn up of what is desirable behavior during committee work periods. Individual child behavior is then more systematically observed in terms of those ways of behaving.

Teachers may follow the practice of writing such paragraphs whenever significant behavior is observed. Or observations may be scheduled more exactly and anecdotes recorded for certain children one week, and for others the next week. In country schools with only a few children, the teacher may set aside a few minutes after school now and then to bring her records up to date. In addition, significant behavior observed at other times may be recorded as soon as convenient.

Probably the chief value of such records is that they focus the attention of teachers on the behavior of children in everyday situations and relate observed behavior to the school's concern with the personal and social adjustment of the children. Through such recording and interpreting of child behavior, teachers gain insight into child growth and can plan more effectively for child guidance.

Summary

Measurement and evaluation has developed to the point where it is recognized as a specialized field. Yet it is a fairly recent development. The intelligence tests and standardized achievement tests and the many instruments for personality appraisal now available to schools have all been developed during this century. Perhaps this explains why, some years after the new instruments were developed, there was considerable overemphasis on measurement.

Today, certain general guideposts to modern practices can be stated. (1) Evaluation must relate to the objectives being served.

(2) Measurement and evaluation should grow out of the on-going school activities, rather than set the teaching pattern to be followed. (3) Interpretation of evaluation data must be made with a clear recognition of the fact that individual children have different abilities. (4) Modern evaluation procedures help children develop skill in self-evaluation. (5) Evaluation is a comprehensive, inclusive, and continuous process, embracing all aspects of child growth and development. (6) A wide variety of instruments and procedures is available. (7) The purpose of evaluation is to make the guidance and direction of learning activities more effective. (8) Evaluation must rest on evidence. Random conclusions are to be avoided.

Rural schools can make much use of the results of intelligence tests, provided the tests are given correctly and interpreted sensibly. Standardized achievement tests have many uses. Again, sensible interpretation of test results is necessary. Reading-readiness tests have a special value. Diagnostic tests of various types may help locate individual difficulties. Personality inventories and scales may be used. Teacher-made tests and examinations continue to have a proper place in the evaluation program; both objective and essay-type items have their uses. Anecdotal records serve to focus attention on important aspects of child growth which are not subject to exact measurement.

Questions for Study and Discussion

1. Review the development of the measurement movement, to the end of World War I.
2. For years there was much emphasis on testing. What serious criticisms were made of the "testing movement"?
3. Explain why evaluation must take account of the objectives of instruction. Give examples.
4. Explain the meaning of the statement, "It is sheer folly to hold a common expectancy for all children." What implication is there for evaluation in the statement?
5. Why is it important that children be helped to build skill in self-evaluation?
6. What is the real purpose of evaluation?

7. What cautions should be observed in using results of group intelligence tests?
8. List worth-while uses of standardized achievement tests.
9. What value has the essay-type question in a teacher-made examination?
10. Discuss the development and use of an anecdotal record in a program of child guidance.

Activities

1. Have a committee prepare a file or a folder of sample tests and scales available for evaluation purposes. It will not be practicable to secure copies of *all* such instruments. Limit the collection to useful ones. Secure help from classroom teachers and from rural school supervisors. Make the file available for use by the members of the class.
2. The practice of giving county-wide, even state-wide, examinations in rural schools is still quite widespread. Find if such examinations are given in your state. If so, who makes them? Or is a standardized test used? How do rural teachers feel about these examinations?
3. It may be possible for the class to give a standardized achievement test in some rural school, under the guidance of the school's instructor.

Bibliography

- American Council on Education, Commission on Teacher Education, *Helping Teachers Understand Children*. Washington, D.C.: The Council, 1945.
- Bond, Guy, and Bond, Eva, *Teaching the Child to Read*. New York: The Macmillan Company, 1943.
- Greene, Edward Barrows, *Measurement of Human Behavior*. New York: The Odyssey Press, 1941.
- Greené, Harry A.; Jorgensen, Albert E.; and Gerberich, J. Raymond, *Measurement and Evaluation in the Elementary School*. New York: Longmans, Green and Company, 1942.

- Hildreth, Gertrude, *Learning the Three R's*, 2d edition. Minneapolis, Minn.: Educational Publishers, Inc., 1947.
- Jarvie, Lawrence L., and Ellingson, Mark, *A Handbook on the Anecdotal Behavior Journal*. Chicago: The University of Chicago Press, 1940.
- National Society for the Study of Education, *Forty-fifth Yearbook*, Part I: *The Measurement of Understanding*. Chicago: The University of Chicago Press, 1946.
- Remmers, H. H., and Gage, N. L., *Educational Measurement and Evaluation*. New York: Harper and Brothers, 1943.
- Ross, G. C., *Measurement in Today's Schools*, second edition. New York: Prentice-Hall, 1947.
- Torgerson, Theodore L., *Studying Children*. New York: The Dryden Press, 1947.

THE RURAL TEACHER'S RECORDS AND REPORTS

THE SUGGESTIONS MADE in preceding chapters calling for investigation and appraisal by the teacher—of the community, of the child's out-of-school life, of his emotional needs, of his interests, of his past school records, and the like—all implied the necessity for systematic record keeping. Mention also has been made of the importance of maintaining close home and school relationships, which involves reporting pupil progress to parents and consulting with the parents. In addition, every teacher must keep certain important administrative records and must summarize these in periodic reports to school officials.

This problem of keeping records and making reports, treated only incidentally up to this point, is the direct concern of this chapter. The discussion is developed in five sections. The first section deals with an overview of the problem in terms of the needs of rural schools. The second section deals with the development and use of a cumulative record file for each child. Administrative records are discussed in the third section. Then suggestions are offered as to how children may be guided in keeping records of their own progress. The final section deals with home reports.

Need for Simple, Usable Records and Reports

One of the important trends of recent years has been the development of new techniques and instruments for use in child guidance. A parallel development of new types of records and reports natu-

rally has accompanied it. The trend reflects the concern of modern education with all-round child growth. However, at times the process of changing school record and report forms has seemed rooted in confusion.

Detailed and complicated record and report forms have been developed in some school systems, particularly large city schools. Child study centers have successfully used even more elaborate forms. It seems necessary to point out that not all of the forms are useful in rural schools.

There are several reasons why records and reports in small schools can and should be kept as simple as possible, while serving their purposes effectively. In the first place, teachers in small rural schools enjoy a unique advantage in that they can come to know both the children and the out-of-school environment directly and naturally in the day-to-day business of living and working. This is particularly true in country schools with only a few children. In these schools there is consequently less need for extensive recording of data about personality growth, home backgrounds, community recreational facilities, and the like, such as is required in the more complex and impersonal city schools. In particular, when a rural teacher stays for several years in one position and thus works with the same children as they grow from year to year, only simple records are necessary.

In the second place, rural teachers, particularly country teachers, have heavy work schedules. They must necessarily practice economy in managing their time. What records and reports are developed must usually be handled by the teachers, since few rural schools have special personnel and guidance workers or clerical workers.

Finally, rural teacher-education has only recently emphasized problems of evaluation and guidance. Many excellent appraisal procedures and instruments demand specialized skill and knowledge which the typical rural teacher does not possess. The same is true of many records. Under the guidance of trained workers, these records are useful; but in the hands of teachers not trained in their use and interpretation and working without supervision, their value is open to serious question.

For these reasons rural school records and reports must be kept simple. Yet some recording and reporting are essential to effective teaching. No teacher can "file" in her mind all the information

about each child that is needed for careful appraisal of his growth and for planning his future learning experiences. Growth is complex. It follows that the analysis and guidance of it require careful study. Adequate records often provide the key to an understanding of the problems of individual children. New teachers often spend much time learning about the children and their needs, time which might be saved if adequate records were kept. School records are indispensable to effective parent-teacher conferences. Home reports continue to be very important.

Two considerations, then, set the viewpoint expressed in the following suggestions: (1) rural schools need records and reports; (2) the records must be kept simple and usable.

The Individual Cumulative Record Folder

Since the central purpose of record keeping is to facilitate effective child guidance, it is necessary to have a systematic method of recording data about each child. Individual records can conveniently be kept in a file folder to which new materials may be added throughout the child's school life. In some rural schools the registers are the only record form used, but no register provides adequate space. Furthermore, the guidance records are more easily managed, and they can be far more complete if kept in a file folder. It is desirable to have a filing cabinet, preferably one with a lock, in which to keep the pupils' records. These records are for the teacher's use alone.

It is not always easy to decide what data should be kept in the individual guidance folder. Some information may be of only temporary value, and periodic sorting of the folders is necessary. In fact, it is a good practice to set fairly regular times to go through the guidance folders and discard material that is no longer of value, and to provide regular times for appraisal of each child's progress. Some of the information about a child or his home situation may be very significant yet of such a personal and confidential nature that it should not be entered in the record. Ethical judgment and common sense must be observed in making any data part of the child's permanent record.

No set of complete and detailed directions for development of

worth-while individual guidance folders can be set forth. Much will depend on the individual child, and much on the ways in which the individual teacher works. Certain general suggestions as to worth-while records can be offered, however.

1. Children's autobiographies provide much useful information. Each child can contribute significantly to his guidance folder by supplying information of an autobiographical nature. The suggested form which follows is a simple one, yet is inclusive of sufficient data to give the teacher something more than a mere introduction to the child. More complete forms have been proposed,¹ and each teacher can adapt items to suit her own situation. It is perhaps best not to seem too curious about all family and home-life matters early in the term. The teacher will learn much about each child's life from home visits and from casual conversations, and these data can be added to the record later.

In asking children to complete the form early in the term, the teacher may explain simply that she is anxious to become acquainted with the pupils—to know about the things they like to do—and that the quickest way is for each to answer questions on the form she has prepared. Lower-grade children will need help from the teacher or from older children.

A SUGGESTED FORM FOR THE AUTOBIOGRAPHY²

Information about Myself

I. My Name, Address, and Age

1. My name: (last name)____, (first name)____ (middle name)____
2. My address: _____
3. My telephone number: _____
4. I was born: (year)____, (month)____ (day)____

II. My Family

1. My father's name: _____
2. Is he living? _____
3. His education: _____ years of grade school, _____ years of high school, _____ years of college.

¹See, for example, Ruth Strang, *Every Teacher's Records*, pp. 17-20.

²The space to be left for each answer will be determined by the teacher. This outline merely indicates the places for the answers.

4. His occupation is: _____
He also has worked as _____
5. My mother's name: _____
6. Is she living? _____
7. Her education: _____ years of grade school, _____ years of high school, _____ years of college.
8. Her work now is: _____
Before she was married she worked as _____
9. I have _____ brothers, _____ sisters.
Their names and ages are: _____

10. I am related to these children, who also go to this school: _____
11. We (do, do not) _____ own our home.
12. We have lived in this home for _____ years.
13. Before we moved here, we lived at _____

III. My School Record

1. I started school when I was _____ years old.
2. I (did, did not) _____ go to kindergarten before first grade.
3. I have repeated these grades: _____
4. I have "skipped" these grades: _____
5. I have gone to the following schools, besides this one: _____

6. The things I do best at school are: _____
7. The things that sometimes are difficult for me at school are: _____

8. I like school because _____
9. I don't like school because _____

IV. What I Do Outside School

1. Work at home I do almost every day: _____
2. Work I sometimes do to help at home: _____
3. I get spending money by: _____
4. I read and look through these magazines: _____
5. Some of the books I have read and liked very much are: _____

6. I listen to these radio programs quite regularly: _____

7. I belong to these clubs: _____

8. I like to play these games, or sports: _____
 9. I wish I had more opportunities to do these things:

 10. My hobbies are: _____
- V. My Hopes and Plans
1. I hope to continue my education as far as: _____
 2. I think I would like to prepare for one of these occupations:

Data collected by this form or a modification of it will provide the teacher with an overview of the child's life and give her some insight into his interests and needs. If these records are kept from year to year, they come to constitute a valuable guidance tool.

2. The results of the various evaluation procedures are usually worth adding to the cumulative guidance folder. The preceding chapter reviewed evaluation practices suited to rural schools. Some of these practices yield more valuable data than do others.

In the case of standardized tests, both of intelligence and of school achievement, the test booklets themselves may be filed after they have been checked. There are several advantages to having the test booklets, rather than merely a summary sheet, in the folders. First, reference to the booklet will tell what form of any test was given. This is important because in measuring growth in subject-matter achievement during a school term, two different forms of the test should be used. In the second place, much can be learned about the difficulties any child is encountering if his actual work in the test is carefully analyzed. It is a good plan to encircle or otherwise mark any places in the child's work which reveal significant difficulties. For example, if a child is having difficulty with long-division examples that contain zeroes in the quotients, an analysis of the actual work will show this and reteaching of this point clearly is desirable. The booklet will also show the date the test was given.

In the case of intelligence test results, the intelligence quotient can be recorded, but again it is more helpful if the booklet itself is made a part of the record. The booklet will show what test was given, who gave it, and what the nature of the test was.

The same general considerations hold too for any standardized diagnostic test or personality or interest inventories used in the evaluation program.

Teacher-made tests may also be worth filing, but it is doubtful if all of the tests given over a school term have permanent record value. It may be well to keep all important ones during the term, then at the end of the year sort out and discard all save those which show more permanent significance.

Anecdotal records, discussed briefly in the preceding chapter, have special value for guiding growth in personal and social adjustment. As suggested earlier, it is well to review these records periodically and write interpretative summaries and statements of recommendations for future guidance. Particular care must be exercised in entering the anecdotal records in the child's permanent folder to select those of significance and to avoid petty and unimportant details. The wisest policy probably is to exclude any behavior reports that might tend to "label" the child in the minds of his future teachers. It is also necessary to observe discretion in recording information of a personal and confidential nature given the teacher by the child.

3. Records of teacher-pupil conferences have value. A good many teachers find personal conferences with pupils an effective guidance procedure. Such conferences are most successful when a friendly, informal, and mutually interested relationship is established. Unless such a relationship exists, not much good comes of them. The general nature of such conferences, as well as the form the reports may take, are suggested by these two conference reports:

Olga was dreadfully shy and I got no more from her than "Yes" and "No." Her notebook was beautifully written and organized and all her work was up to date. I commended her on her industry and she smiled, somewhat embarrassed. I asked her what she would like to concentrate on for the next month. She didn't know. I suggested that she might plan to make one good report to the group during the library period.¹

We went through Ruth's notebooks carefully today. Much of the work was carelessly done. For the next month Ruth will try to read over everything she writes and make corrections before she considers the work finished. We also talked about the flippant attitude she has taken toward people, especially toward those adults in the community

¹Julia Weber, *My Country School Diary*, p. 25. Used by permission of Harper and Brothers, publishers.

whom she knows. I explained to her that we knew she meant nothing disrespectful by it but that it was a bad habit to get into.¹

These conferences with pupils may be thought of as "planning and evaluating" periods. They may open naturally enough with discussion of former plans and of progress made. Test results may be reviewed co-operatively. Library reading may be discussed. Praise and commendation, honestly given, do much to win pupil confidence and build pupil self-respect. Having brief reports of the important conferences in the record folders helps the teacher plan for future ones. If the significant reports are left for succeeding teachers, they may be very helpful in giving continuity and consistency to the guidance of individual children.

4. Records of parent-teacher conferences have permanent value. As modern schools have accepted responsibility for personality growth, the need for close home and school co-operation has been increasingly recognized. Consequently, in modern schools, there are frequent conferences between teachers and parents. As with teacher-pupil conferences, the establishment of satisfactory rapport, marked by genuine feelings of mutual respect and friendliness, is essential to successful conferences with parents. And, as with the teacher-pupil conferences, brief reports of these conferences are worth while for the individual guidance folders.

D'Evelyn has stated criteria for such reports as follows:

The criteria of satisfactory reports of parent conferences are briefness, objectivity, and ethics. Above all else, they should give a statement of the steps taken in meeting the problem by the parent and the teacher, and enough of the dynamics of the problem discussed so that the succeeding teacher will have a clear picture of past difficulties and planning.²

The writing of these reports calls for a good deal of skill, but most of all it calls for sincerity, honesty, and common sense. It is necessary to avoid too much *editorializing* and to keep the report as simple, straightforward, and factual as possible. It is very important not to

¹*Ibid.*, p. 41.

²Katherine E. D'Evelyn, *Individual Parent-Teacher Conferences*, p. 87. Used by permission of Teachers College, Columbia University.

write into the permanent record any data of a personal and confidential nature given the teacher because of her close working relationship with a parent, but which the parent might be very reluctant to have in a record available to succeeding teachers and to supervisors. If these general criteria are observed, then the reports of parent-teacher conferences can contribute much to the continuity and effectiveness of the child-guidance work.

5. The child's record should show his major curriculum experiences. In modern schools a large measure of freedom is given teachers and children in planning the specific curriculum experiences. Courses of study are looked upon as general guides and teaching aids, rather than as inflexible and specific directions to be followed. Individual pupil needs must be recognized. This means, among other things, that textbook materials of varying levels of difficulty will be used even in a single grade. But curriculum freedom imposes on each teacher the definite responsibility of planning effectively, and a corollary responsibility for recording curriculum experiences. Only through such records can the work of the school from year to year have continuity and sequence.

Curriculum records, then, constitute an important part of the school records. They reveal the major units in which the children have shared and the types of learning activities developed, and by doing so give a general picture of "where the child is." Small rural schools have a unique advantage in that traditional grade placement can be handled very flexibly, and the work in school subjects can be highly individualized. With several grades in one room, it is possible for a child to be working at different grade levels in different subjects. The need for careful recording of individual progress, of books used by the different children, and so on is obvious. It is helpful to succeeding teachers to know, for example, what readers the child used the previous year; what work he covered in arithmetic; what major social studies units he helped develop. The preparation of curriculum records may be done periodically during the year, or a brief end-of-the-term summary may be prepared for filing in each child's guidance folder.

It is to be emphasized that these curriculum records need not be extremely detailed. They can be made concise and to the point, and their preparation need not take a great deal of time. Yet they may

save the succeeding teacher much time in launching the next year's work.

6. Individual health records are essential for child guidance. The management of the school health program is discussed in the next chapter. Without going into detail here, it may be pointed out that every teacher needs to know a good deal about the health of each child. Results of vision and hearing tests, records of immunizations for communicable diseases, information about children with weak hearts and other physical handicaps have obvious implications for child guidance. Health-record data will come from various sources, notably from physical examinations by the school doctor, the school nurse, or the public health nurse. Some information may be secured from a "health history" form such as many school health departments ask parents to complete. Interviews with parents and visits to the homes sometimes yield new and worth-while information. The teacher herself may note significant observations on the health records. For example, she may record the fact that a child always seems tired and listless, lacking in the vigorous energy characteristic of children, or that another child brings inadequate school lunches, or that a certain pupil needs guidance in personal health habits. Such information clearly can contribute to the primary purpose of school records, which is the better, more complete understanding of the child so that school experiences which meet his needs can be provided.

The Teacher's Responsibility for Certain Administrative Records and Reports

Pupil attendance must be recorded and reported accurately. This is important for several reasons. State and national attendance statistics rest upon the reports of individual teachers, and these statistics will be valueless unless the records are faithfully and accurately made. Again, various school funds are allocated on the basis of the attendance data, hence school administrators give a good deal of attention to the attendance records and reports. Quite understandably, they expect these reports to be correct, complete, and neatly prepared.

The usual form for recording attendance is the school register. In

addition to keeping it up to date, teachers are required to make monthly and term attendance reports from it. The data incorporated in the reports must agree, of course, with the record kept in the register. The monthly reports are cumulative, and the yearly totals for such data as number of days school is in session, aggregate attendance, and so on must agree with the actual record and must balance. Specific report forms vary in detail in different states. Most are fundamentally simple to fill out if the terms used on them are thoroughly understood.

Inexperienced teachers may find it wise to rule a notebook for recording daily attendance, and to transfer the records to the official register periodically, perhaps at the end of each week. This procedure helps to keep the register neat and accurate. Similarly, it is desirable to do the computations required in preparing monthly and term reports before copying figures onto the official report forms. It is necessary to keep copies of all monthly reports. These are useful in preparing the term summary and in checking items that may be questioned.

It is very important that beginning teachers study register and attendance report instructions carefully, that they faithfully record daily attendance and check all figures involved in monthly and term reports, and that in general they make a conscientious effort to avoid inaccuracies.

There are certain other types of administrative records that require discussion. Many schools handle considerable amounts of money during the school term. Children may bring money for magazine or newspaper subscriptions, for midmorning lunches, for hot lunches at noon, and for other purposes. The best policy is to keep complete and accurate records of all money received and spent, and to file all bills and receipts. Some teachers let the children share in the keeping of the financial accounts, as a meaningful arithmetic experience. When this is done, the records must be checked by the teacher. Some school boards and superintendents ask teachers to submit accounts of money handled during the term. But even if such accounts are not required, it is best to keep them anyway. Teachers are also often responsible for keeping inventories of textbooks, library books, and other school property. Little more need be said about such records than that they should be kept efficiently.

The Children's Share in Recording and Reporting School Life

One of the newer trends in evaluation is the emphasis placed on helping children to learn to evaluate their own progress. Modern schools, therefore, have the children share in the recording and reporting of their own experiences.

Each child may keep a folder or a large envelope in a filing cabinet. The cabinet may be nothing more expensive and elaborate than a packing crate or a cardboard box of appropriate size. In his folder, the child can keep various types of records.

Samples of a child's work, if collected and filed systematically over a period of time, are helpful to both teacher and child in appraising progress and diagnosing needs. Having each child share in keeping these and using them for periodic teacher-pupil conferences is one way of helping each child gain skill in self-evaluation. Written reports, book reviews, tests, and samples of creative work in writing, art, and music may be kept. It is well to date each sample. These will be useful in parent conferences, as well as in conferences with pupils, and they may be used to supplement the home reports from time to time.

Another type of record the child can share in keeping is one dealing with individual needs and achievements. An example is the individual spelling list. The list may include words misspelled in the child's written work and used frequently enough to justify having him learn them. Care must be taken, of course, to see that such lists are not "overloaded," for they have value only if the child can master them with reasonable effort. A fairly durable sheet of paper (oak tag is good) may be kept in the file, and simple notes may be made to indicate when the child is tested on the words.

Similarly, individual needs in arithmetic may be recorded. Accompanying such diagnostic statements may be practice sheets for the individual needs so listed. Some teachers clip pages from workbooks, selected so as to provide practice on the particular process or type of example with which the child has had difficulty. It is to be understood, of course, that careful reteaching and meaningful explanation must often precede the assignment of practice work.

The keeping of such individual records, as a co-operative teacher-

pupil enterprise, has several values. It helps to make practice and drill exercises meaningful to the child by relating them to demonstrated needs. It tends, too, to make such work specific in terms of each child's needs. And, as the records reveal achievement and progress, they help the children grow in self-evaluation and self-confidence.

In these individual record folders, children may also keep notes on library books read and reported on, records of committee work engaged in and individual contributions made, records of school responsibilities handled, and notes on other significant activities. The aim will be to have the folders reflect the total life of the school as the child engages in it. The records must never become so involved as to result in confusion. Growth in ability to keep them and make good use of them is gradual, as is all growth. Teachers will find it wise to develop pupil experiences in record keeping gradually, according to the individual's skill in making and using records. From the first, however, such records should be more than records of errors. They are valuable only to the extent that they are useful and are used.

The School's Purposes and Concepts of Child Growth Reflected in the Report Cards

More is involved in the way the school reports to parents on children's progress than may appear at first glance. In fact, reporting to parents is one of those functions that involve the whole philosophy of the school.

Implicit in any system of home reporting are assumptions on such fundamental issues as these: What are the aims of education? How do children learn? Is it wise to hold a common learning expectancy for all children? How is the curriculum to be organized? Should children "fail"? These questions, obviously, are not ones to which simple and easy answers can be given. Yet if a report form is to serve its fundamental purposes of informing parents on what the school is trying to do and how the child is progressing in regard to those objectives, it must be an expression of the school's total philosophy and program.

Another reason why home reporting practices require careful attention is that children and parents look upon them as very important. In some measure, at least, the type of home report used sets the immediate learning goals for the children. From the parents' point of view, home reports have been in use for generations and have a kind of traditional significance. In the minds of both children and parents, home reports are associated with promotion policies. They are, in short, a regular and accepted way of communicating to the homes what the school believes to be important for the child in terms of school learnings and behavior, and what the child's progress and present standing are in the areas of growth indicated by those objectives. They require the teacher's serious attention.

Traditional home-report practices are not suited to modern education. Modern education accepts responsibility for more than the child's learning in the traditional school subjects. This widened scope of responsibility is indicated by any modern statement of educational objectives. The excellent statement of objectives for elementary education in New York State is an example:

It is the function of the public elementary school to help every child:

1. To understand and practice desirable social relationships.
2. To discover and develop his own desirable individual aptitudes.
3. To cultivate the habit of critical thinking.
4. To appreciate and desire worth-while activities.
5. To gain command of the common integrating knowledge and skills.
6. To develop a sound body and normal mental attitudes.¹

Traditional report cards are concerned almost exclusively with the child's progress in the area indicated by the fifth of these objectives. Yet the other areas, such as understanding and practicing desirable social relationships, critical thinking, and physical and mental health, are clearly of very real importance. In fact, the learnings in early childhood years in areas indicated by these broader objectives will determine more largely the kind of person the child is to be than will learnings in the school subjects, although the school

¹Committee on Elementary Education of the New York Council of Superintendents, *Cardinal Objectives in Elementary Education*, p. 13.

subjects continue to be very important also. The point is that the home report indicates to the child and to his parents what the school believes to be important for him to learn, and tells how well he has progressed. Hence if the school is to give realistic service to those objectives, the report form it uses must reflect concern with them. It must, in one way or another, report on more than progress in the school subjects.

Increased understanding of child growth also has contributed to dissatisfaction with traditional report forms. Research has clearly established the truth of what common sense has always accepted—that children differ greatly in rate of growth and in levels of achievement. This holds true for all areas of growth. They differ in height, and in weight, and in the age at which they learn to talk and to walk. They differ also in their rates of learning in the school subjects, and in the levels of achievement they reach in those subjects. Yet the traditional report card, with its per cent marks, seems to rest on an assumption that a common learning expectancy might reasonably be held for all children. According to that system, a "passing" mark is established and children who fall short of it fail of promotion. Traditional report card marking systems periodically label some children failures or near failures, in spite of the fact they may be achieving very satisfactory progress in terms of their varied abilities. But the true indictment of the system rests on the fact that it has been responsible for many children dropping out of school at the earliest legal opportunity.

Still another criticism of traditional report cards is directed at their influence on the child's mental health and general attitudes. Fair measures of earned success, social approval, and self-respect are essential to the development of an integrated and wholesome personality. The competitive nature of the traditional marking systems, applied as they are to children of unequal abilities, often denies those essential satisfactions to some children.

It has also been argued that the traditional marking systems focus the child's attention on the *marks* rather than on the intrinsic value of what is being learned, and that they tend to make school life highly competitive at a period in human history when social needs demand education in co-operation.

Associated with traditional marking and reporting systems has

been the practice of "failing" children who did not achieve the standards established for different grades. Modern concepts of child development hold that for all-round growth the child needs to live and work with others of about the same age, size, and social maturity. The over-age child who is forced to live and work in a group of children several years younger than himself is obviously not in a favorable environment for happy and socially adjusted living, quite apart from the social stigma attached to his retardation.

Traditional marking and reporting systems are subject to further criticism on the grounds that they require teachers to make judgments that cannot be supported. For example, it is quite impossible to distinguish between, say, a "92 per cent" and an "89 per cent" achievement in first-grade reading by the end of the first report period. In large measure, it is equally as difficult to make the fine distinctions in pupil achievement that per cent marks imply at any level in the elementary school.

There has been much experimentation with new report card forms. As schools have become aware of the limitations and the disadvantages of traditional report card practices, there has been a good deal of experimentation to develop forms better suited to modern education. Many schools have abandoned per cent marks and substituted five-point marking scales. The symbols used are usually the letters A, B, C, D, and E or F or the numbers 1, 2, 3, 4, and 5. Other forms have used a check-list format, with the teacher placing a check mark opposite each subject in a column headed "Excellent" or "Very good" or "Fair," etc. Still other schools, attempting to avoid the competitive rating even these symbols still imply, have marked children simply "Satisfactory" or "Unsatisfactory" for progress in the school subjects, and have stated clearly that these marks are given in terms of each child's ability. Accompanying these changes in marking practices, many schools have tried to indicate the widened scope of their objectives by adding to the report cards lists of personality and social traits.

These newer report forms also have certain disadvantages. A good many parents feel that they do not tell as much as they might of the child's school work. It is not always easy to mark in terms of the individual child's ability, either, since judging learning ability calls for a high level of insight into child development. The inclusion on

the report form of personality and social traits and behavior habits has called the attention of teachers and parents to these important aspects of the school's responsibility, but again it is not a simple matter to make sound judgments concerning them. Furthermore, the separate listing of such traits sometimes seems to assume a splitting up of the child's total personality that does not accord with what is known about the unity and interrelatedness of growth.

Some schools, therefore, have abandoned all formal report card forms and instead send letters to the parents several times during the school year. These letter-type reports have several important advantages. The teacher, freed of any rigid framework for making her report, can adapt the evaluation to the strengths and needs of individual children. The competitive marking aspect is eliminated, and so is the splitting up of personality into separate traits. Letter reports, therefore, can deal with the individual child and treat him as a total person. They can also be made friendly and informal, and can include specific suggestions on ways the home can help the school. If space is provided for parents' comments and if a good home-and-school relationship exists, the letters can serve also as two-way communication instruments, and parents can offer suggestions helpful to the teacher.

The following sample letter-type report was written for a bright, well-adjusted seven-year-old:

Brian's progress has been most satisfactory. His progress in reading has been outstanding. He is in the advanced reading group. His evident enjoyment of the stories is delightful. Everyone appreciated his enthusiasm as Santa Claus in our dramatization of the story "The Little Christmas Tree." He has continued to do much independent reading, too. I am pleased to note how careful he has become in the way he handles books.

In spelling, Brian does an excellent job of mastering the weekly lessons, but he does not seem to remember words previously learned. We are planning some special review periods for him. His number work is usually very good, though he sometimes works too rapidly and makes careless mistakes.

He utilizes his free time to good advantage. He reads at the library table, writes stories, or plays games with a group. He especially likes our "Store" game and helps other children count their play money.

I am glad to be able to report that he is less inclined to tease other children. Several times, I have noticed him help others both in the "Store" game and with library reading. He is quick to offer praise when another child does something well.

Brian is consistently co-operative and cheerful, and has a good sense of humor. We all appreciate his ready smile.

He has been working much harder in music, and has improved his singing. I think he enjoys it more, too. He has done some very nice paintings in our art period.

The following letter-type report was written for another child in the same second grade. This child, however, is a slow-learning boy.

Fred has been "coming along" quite nicely in reading. His interest is good, and he works hard. He has been very industrious in trying to master the reading words. Every morning he comes and asks to go through his word cards with me. As I told you in our last conference, he is still limited to very easy reading material.

He also works hard in spelling and has done very well in the weekly tests. However, he does not remember the words very long. I am going to give him short review lists quite often during the next few weeks.

Although he has shown improvement, he still has trouble with the addition and subtraction facts. He is anxious to master them and I am sure he will continue to work hard; but it will take time.

Fred still does not speak very distinctly, and others find it difficult to understand what he is saying. I have several times suggested that he not turn his head away from the person to whom he is talking, and that he speak more slowly and in a louder voice. Perhaps he can be reminded of these suggestions at home, as well as at school.

He has written some good stories, and has done very nice art work. He still needs help in finding worth-while things to do during our free-time periods.

I hope you can arrange soon to have his eyes examined. And, as I mentioned in our conference, I hope you will continue to have him select easy books at the public library and spend some time helping him read them.¹

It will be noted that the flexibility of the letter-type report makes it possible to individualize what is reported. Such reports are also

¹Both letter reports were written by Mary R. Kraft, second grade supervising teacher, State Teachers College, Fredonia, New York.

well adapted to reviewing total child growth. If written in a friendly, informal, honest way, they can express the teacher's personal sympathy and concern with each child much more clearly than can the impersonal printed report card forms on which only "marks" are recorded.

Some teachers find it difficult to write effective letter reports. A few general suggestions can be offered. It is clear, first, that the teacher must have continuously evaluated the child's progress during the period the report covers. The first requirement for successful letter reports, then, is the continuous appraisal and systematic record keeping that have already been suggested. If the child's cumulative record folder is complete and up-to-date, the teacher will not find it difficult to summarize the child's work in a letter report.

In the second place, the teacher must write the report in simple, direct, organized statements. She must be careful to avoid repeated use of stereotyped phrases and words. Needless to say, the letter itself must be neatly and carefully written.

A few schools have gone so far as to eliminate all written reports to parents, substituting individual parent-teacher conferences. This practice, if accepted and approved by the parents, has much to commend it. It requires a good deal of skill on the part of the teacher, however, and it seems likely that it is too advanced a practice for many rural communities at the present time. Teachers will find that letter-type reports often lead to worth-while conferences with parents. Perhaps the use of letters and conferences together is the best practice for most schools at this time.

Enough has been said about report cards to indicate they are changing. The following general guideposts may serve to draw the points together and to suggest ways the teacher may handle the report card problem in her school.

1. Changes in report card practices are best made gradually, a step at a time, and only as rapidly as parents understand the reasons for change and are ready to accept new practices. This is not to suggest that teachers should hesitate to change. It is possible to move too slowly as well as too rapidly. The point is that parents must be consulted and informed in advance of report card changes, and that the change should be gradual enough so that the community accepts each forward step which is taken.

2. The report card inevitably reflects the philosophy of the school. Modern schools are concerned with a broader range of objectives than were the schools some years ago. They recognize that children vary in rate and level of growth, and they view growth and learning as functions of the total personality. These aspects of modern educational philosophy have obvious implications for report card practices, and for discussion with parent groups in any school planning a change in the report form used.

3. A transition step from cards with "marks" to letter-type reports is the use of a card using such terms as "Satisfactory" and "Unsatisfactory." The progress children make is usually rated on such cards in terms of their individual abilities.

4. Letter-type reports have many advantages. They must be written carefully, and their success depends on how well the home and the school understand each other's purposes.

5. Children can profitably have a share in reporting their own progress. They may select and file samples of work to take home at report card time or to show their parents on a school visiting day. They may also prepare reviews of their school work to be included with the teacher's home reports.

6. Teacher-parent conferences are often the best way of reporting on the child's development and of enlisting the co-operation of the parents in planning for future growth. Even when other more formal ways of reporting are used, conferences may supplement and extend the guidance value of the reports.

7. Whatever method of home reporting is used, it is necessary to bear in mind that children and parents attach much importance to the reports. Careful and thoughtful attention to home reports pays dividends in parent co-operation and support.

Summary

Many of the day-to-day activities of the school involve keeping records and making reports. In the rural school, the records and reports can be kept simple and yet serve their purposes.

The basic purpose of records and reports is to facilitate effective child guidance. The individual cumulative guidance folder may

include the "autobiography," standardized achievement test booklets, intelligence tests, other standardized tests or scales or inventories that may be used from time to time, anecdotal records, samples of the child's work, notes on important teacher-pupil conferences, reports of conferences with parents, and records of curriculum development. This listing is suggestive, and the question of just what records go into any one child's guidance folder must be answered in terms of the child's needs and the program of the school.

Attendance records and reports are considered very important by school administrative officials. Hence the rural teacher will do well to master the forms used for these data, and to set for herself high standards of accuracy and promptness in dealing with them. The same holds for financial records, school property inventories, and the like.

Children can profitably share in the recording and reporting of their school experiences. It is suggested, for example, that they record their individual study needs, keep samples of their work, summarize the unit activities, and list the library books they have read. The extent to which the child participates in the recording and reporting will depend on the program of the school and the child's maturity.

Home reports are very important. In recent years, report forms have changed as the school has accepted wider responsibilities and as educators have become more aware of the unity and interrelatedness of growth. Many types of report forms have been developed. Of these, the letter-type report seems particularly well adapted to the purposes of modern education. Individual parent-teacher conferences are always helpful, no matter what report form is used.

Questions for Study and Discussion

1. It is important to bear in mind that records and reports are never ends in themselves but are worth while only as they serve educational purposes. What, after all, is the basic purpose of school records and reports?
2. What considerations indicate that rural school records and reports should be kept fairly simple?

3. Review the ways in which the "autobiography" records can be of value.
4. List and discuss the various records which may be kept in the individual cumulative guidance folder.
5. Of those various types of records, which would be of particular value to the new teacher? Why?
6. What important considerations should be kept in mind about the recording and reporting of attendance data?
7. In what ways can the children share in the record keeping? What are the values of having them do so?
8. What changes in educational philosophy have brought about the development of new home-report forms?
9. Review the various types of home-report forms that have been developed.
10. What are the advantages of the letter-type home report? What suggestions can be given for making it effective?

Activities

1. Have a committee collect samples of different types of home reports. File these in some systematic arrangement, and make them available for use by members of the class.
2. Have another committee collect different kinds of school registers. Study the instructions for their use.
3. Collect samples of the attendance report forms rural teachers in your state must know how to use. Include both monthly and term summary forms. Then make out a "sample set" of these reports and prepare a copy for each member of the class. Give complete, clear explanations of the computations required.

Bibliography

- Association for Childhood Education, *Records and Reports*. Washington, D.C.: The Association, 1942.
- Bowen, Genevieve, *Living and Learning in a Rural School*. New York: The Macmillan Company, 1944.

Culp, Vernon H., *How to Manage a Rural School*. Minneapolis, Minn.: Burgess Publishing Company, 1942.

D'Evelyn, Katherine E., *Individual Parent-Teacher Conferences*. New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1945.

Huggett, Albert J., and Millard, Cecil V., *Growth and Learning in the Elementary School*. Boston: D. C. Heath and Company, 1946.

National Education Association of the United States, Department of Rural Education, *Guidance in Rural Schools: Yearbook, 1942*, edited by Fannie W. Dunn. Washington, D.C.: The Association, 1942.

Strang, Ruth, *Every Teacher's Records*. New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1936.

—, *Reporting to Parents*. New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1947.

Strang, Ruth, and Hatcher, Latham, *Child Development and Guidance in Rural Schools*. New York: Harper and Brothers, 1943.

Weber, Julia, *My Country School Diary*. New York: Harper and Brothers, 1946.

Wofford, Kate V., *Modern Education in the Small Rural School*. New York: The Macmillan Company, 1938.

CHAPTER VIII

HEALTH AND SAFETY IN THE RURAL SCHOOL

THERE IS LESS general enjoyment of good health among rural people than is popularly supposed. The incidence and mortality rates of preventable diseases are particularly high in rural areas. Many rural communities have woefully inadequate hospital and clinic facilities and too few doctors, public health nurses, and such workers as sanitation engineers. Housing, for many rural families, is far from meeting the standards of health and comfort.

It is clear that there is much to be done by the schools in promoting healthful living. Yet the White House Conference on Children in a Democracy reported that:

Notwithstanding general appreciation of the importance of school health service, it is still in a rudimentary stage of development in many places, especially in small towns and rural areas. Inspections and examinations are often superficial and ineffective; they rarely take cognizance of health records for preschool years, frequently not even of previous records of examinations in school; there is inadequate provision for interpreting them to the parents and for securing indicated treatment. Responsibility for shortcomings is shared by insufficient appropriations, ineffective use of appropriations, lack of co-ordination between education and health authorities, insufficient facilities in the community for free treatment, and imperfect preparation of doctors, nurses, and teachers for this work.¹

Good health is important, and little that is really effective is being done to promote it in many rural schools. Health instruction as a school subject and the problems of a physical education program are

¹White House Conference on Children in a Democracy, *Final Report*, p. 309.

dealt with in this chapter only incidentally. The approach is from the viewpoint of what the rural teacher can do to promote health and safety in the school and the community. The discussion is developed in three sections. In the first section, things the teacher can do to make the school itself a healthful and safe place are discussed. The second section deals with ways of studying and meeting health needs of individual children. The third section suggests ways of extending the school health program to the homes and the community.

Safe and Healthful School Living the Concern of Teacher, Children, and Parents

Healthful classroom conditions must be maintained. The schoolroom should be clean, comfortable, attractive, and healthful. Making and keeping it so is a difficult problem, especially in country schools. Many school buildings are old, poorly built, and in serious disrepair. While working for the construction of modern buildings, teachers must at the same time make the most of what they find. Janitorial work usually must be done by the teacher and the children. The help of parents may be solicited when necessary, but the general responsibility must be assumed by the teacher.

Heating the schoolroom is a difficult problem in many country schools. Modern rural school buildings provide for heating by gas, oil, or coal-burning furnaces located in basement rooms. Unfortunately, there are relatively few such country school buildings. Many schools are heated by units called "room heaters." These are usually either coal-burning or oil-burning, and they combine the heating and the ventilating functions. State departments of education in several states issue bulletins which describe these heaters and set forth standards and regulations for their installation and operation. A clearly written and well-illustrated bulletin of this type is published by the Iowa State Department of Public Instruction.¹

The ventilating room heater is the best type of heating unit for

¹Iowa State Department of Public Instruction and State Department of Health, *Heating and Ventilating Requirements for Rural Schools*. Des Moines, Iowa: State Department of Public Instruction.

country school buildings that have no basement space for furnaces. It is not unduly expensive. As a matter of fact, a skilled workman can transform a good coal-burning heating stove into a ventilating room heater with little difficulty. Teachers in schools not equipped with satisfactory heating equipment should secure information concerning this type of unit and try to interest local board members and school parents in securing one.

A great many country schools, however, are heated only by wood-burning or coal-burning stoves. In recent years the stoves in many schools have been "jacketed," that is, enclosed within asbestos-lined sheet-iron jackets which extend from about eight inches above floor level to above the stove top. These jackets help to make the heating in all parts of the room more nearly uniform.

No matter what type of heating unit is provided, the teacher and the children have the responsibility of trying to maintain an even temperature of about 68 to 70 degrees in all parts of the room. Room temperature can be checked if there are two thermometers, or more, located in different parts of the room and hung at about desk level. It is necessary to provide for keeping the room air moist when the heating unit is in use. If a furnace or a room heater is used, this can be done by regular attention to the water pan. If a stove is used, a pan or a kettle of water may be kept on it when it is in use. It is important that an ample supply of fuel be kept on hand at all times. The fuel should be stored in a sheltered place, and the fuel box should be in the building so that it is not necessary to go outside each time the fire is to be replenished. If dry, easily lighted kindling is kept ready for use, fire-building is made much easier. In the winter, a regular schedule for tending the fire can be established.

The furnace or stove must be kept clean. Chimneys should be inspected periodically, to make sure there is no fire hazard. If gas is burned, it is extremely important that there be regular safety inspections to make sure there are no leaks to create the danger of an explosion.

Opening time each morning should find the room well heated. This may mean that the fire has to be built as much as an hour before school begins. Older children can share in the responsibility of tending the fire; arrangements can often be made for families living near the school to attend to the early morning fire-building.

However, the teacher must remember that fire-building involves definite accident hazards. Only children ready for such responsibility should be asked to assume it, and even then definite safety precautions must be established.

Room ventilation is important. In most rural schools it is regulated largely by adjusting the windows properly. Glass draft deflectors can be fitted to several of the windows used for ventilating purposes. Such draft deflectors can easily be made. It is wise to throw windows wide open a few minutes at recess periods, so as to air the room.

Schoolroom lighting is another persistent problem. Electricity is being installed in more rural schools each year. This movement has been advanced by the program of the Rural Electrification Administration. It is important that electrification be extended to rural schools because there is general concern in this country over the problem of defective vision. Natural lighting varies greatly throughout the school term. On dark days schools without correct artificial lighting almost certainly do not have adequate light for the kind of work the children do, no matter how many windows there may be. The problem is further complicated by the necessity of preventing glare—either direct glare or reflected glare from desk tops, blackboards, or glossy papers. Unless there is artificial lighting, it is often impossible both to eliminate glare and to maintain adequate lighting. The desks on the side of the room farthest from the windows naturally are most difficult to light adequately.

Measurement of one aspect of room lighting is possible with a light meter. Several types are made, and many county superintendents and most light and power companies have them. These meters measure illumination in terms of foot-candles. The usefulness of such measurement is very real, even though it does not tell the whole story of light adequacy. The Illuminating Engineering Society has recommended that the minimum illumination at any desk or on any blackboard in schoolrooms be twenty foot-candles, and it suggests that thirty foot-candles represents a more adequate standard.¹ More illumination is required for sewing and for rooms where children with only partial vision work. The teacher can secure a light meter and measure the illumination at different places in the room

¹Iowa State Department of Public Instruction and State Department of Health, *Rural Schoolhouse Lighting*, p. 16.

on different kinds of days, and with shades adjusted as they must be on sunny days. The results of the survey may then be recorded accurately and presented to the proper supervisory officials or board members with recommendations for necessary action. It is a good idea to combine such a survey of lighting conditions with units in health instruction, having the children share in the study. The survey may be carried into the homes, too, and may lead to school study of the possibilities of bringing electrification to the community.

As a last and temporary resort, teachers can even make use of oil-burning or gas-burning lamps and lanterns. This involves a number of problems, but it is better than carrying on classes in rooms in which such lights would at least be an improvement over the present conditions.

Recently the experimental schoolroom lighting work done by Darell B. Harmon, of the Texas State Department of Health, has merited much attention. His concern has been with the whole child in relation to the total visual environment. The scope of the experiments is such that seating arrangements, window construction, interior decorations, and related school building problems are involved. The work is rather technical, but it suggests certain general conclusions. "Brightness distribution" is of critical importance in evaluating schoolroom lighting. There should not be marked contrast in brightness anywhere within the child's field of vision; especially there should not be marked contrast in brightness with the desk top. Wall paints must be chosen carefully—the ceiling and upper walls should have high reflectivity. Light finish is best for desk tops. Floors, too, should be light; even old floors can be bleached and refinished. Blackboards probably should not be black at all, but some color providing greater reflectivity, perhaps green. Window light should be diffused to avoid too great a brightness contrast with the room interior.

To promote better lighting, some adjustments can be made in the school routine as well as in the room fixtures. On dark days, long periods involving reading are not advisable unless the light is adequate. Furniture may be shifted about so as to have children get maximum benefit of what light is available. Shades can be adjusted frequently and carefully. It is best to have two shades mounted at the middle of the window, with one shade operating upward and

the other downward. It is generally recommended that cloth shades with soft surface finish be used.

Sanitary toilets must be provided. Preliminary to the rural school building project of the Kellogg Foundation in Van Buren County, Michigan, the condition of the buildings in the rural districts was surveyed. The report includes this statement:

It was difficult to instill in young minds that an insanitary, dilapidated privy was property that should be respected. Keeping outhouses or privies sanitary is the teacher's responsibility in most one-teacher schools. The job is not only unpleasant and time-consuming but it is impossible of accomplishment in actual practice.

The rural outhouse, and especially the school outhouse, is a real and constant hazard to health. Some were built recently according to Federal public health specifications. These were sanitary while new. But a school privy is new for only a week.¹

Every rural school should be equipped with indoor, sanitary, flush-type toilets. The installation of such toilets, with septic tanks and tile drainage systems, is relatively inexpensive. State departments of education and state and county health departments can furnish plans and specifications. Many school supply companies and other commercial companies handle the necessary equipment. In modern America there is no excuse for failing to meet this need in all school buildings.

Until administrative and financial adjustments in rural education are made, however, many country schools will continue to have only outdoor toilets. It was suggested in another chapter that the teacher visit the school during the summer before the term opens and, among other things, inspect the toilets. Necessary repairs can be called to the attention of supervisory officials and board members, and action should be insisted upon. The toilets can be kept clean and painted, and toilet tissue can be provided.

Many state education and health departments have prepared building specifications for outdoor toilets. The teacher may find it helpful to secure such plans for use in checking the school toilets and in planning with board members for new ones, if the installation of

¹The W. K. Kellogg Foundation, *Schools Awake*, p. 9. Used by permission of the Foundation, Battle Creek, Michigan.

sanitary flush-type indoor toilets seems impossible. Regular inspection of toilets is a necessary part of the rural teacher's work.

The school needs an adequate supply of pure water. Country schools secure drinking water from a variety of sources. Many have wells, some of which are safe and some unsafe. Some use water from open springs, and others have cisterns for storing rain water. Some schools even use water from running streams, while a few have no water supply, requiring the teacher and the children to bring small amounts to school daily or to have it hauled there in tanks. Every school should have a water supply not only for drinking purposes and for washing hands but also for use in various school activities.

The best source of water for country schools is a carefully constructed, protected well at least seventy-five feet away from and, if possible, upslope from the privy or septic tank. The installation of an electrically powered pump and pressure water system providing running water in the schoolroom is highly desirable. Samples of water can be submitted to local, county, or state health departments periodically to determine whether the water is safe for use.

If a pressure water system can be provided, drinking fountains can be installed. The teacher will need to supervise the fountains, to see that they are kept perfectly clean and that the children drink without touching their mouths to the fountains. If there is no running water, the problem of managing drinking water is more difficult. Certainly the day of the common dipper is past. The best plan seems to be for the school to supply paper drinking cups. These may be kept in a dispenser or in a cupboard near the water. The water itself may be kept in a covered container from which it is drawn through a faucet or a spigot. School supply and other companies handle such equipment. The Tennessee State Department of Education, in its excellent bulletin for rural schools, suggests the use of a barrel kept on a low stand, with a tin basin on a still lower stand, at "hand-washing level," below the spigot. From the tin basin a pipe drains off the waste water.¹ In some country schools, drinking water is kept in a large teakettle. This makes pouring it into individual cups convenient, and it prevents dripping. The teakettle should be boiled out frequently to sterilize it.

¹Tennessee State Department of Education, *Living and Learning in Small Rural Schools*, p. 25.

Handwashing facilities can be provided in various ways. If the school has running water, the problem is not difficult. Where there is no running water, the Tennessee bulletin mentioned above suggests that hands can be washed under water running slowly from the barrel spigot into the basin below.

A recent article suggests another practical way to manage handwashing before the lunch period in schools without running water.¹ The necessary equipment is simple—a pail of water, an empty pail for waste water, a liquid soap container, and paper towels. As the children prepare for lunch, one child takes charge. Each child, in turn, holds his hands over the empty pail while a cup of water is poured over his hands. He is given a squirt of liquid soap, and a good rub is followed by a cup of rinse water and the use of a paper towel. It is suggested that a large oil can makes a good liquid soap dispenser. The liquid soap can be purchased or it can be made at school by the children.

The lunch period is an important part of the health program. Some rural teachers fail to realize the importance of the lunch hour. It probably offers as many opportunities for truly effective learning as any other period of the day. Some parents, too, fail to realize the importance of providing adequate school lunches for children. Studies have shown that farm children often bring unsatisfactory lunches. The main meal of the day in many farm homes is at noon, and the children who take their lunches miss it. Farm children eat an early breakfast. Many of them do several hours of outdoor work daily. All these facts suggest that the noon meal at school should be an adequate and a nourishing one. Furthermore, the lunch period offers many opportunities for learning about food values, food production and preservation, and the preparation of meals. Social values also may be developed during the hour. And, very importantly, through the lunch period there is a direct approach to parent education. For all these reasons it is desirable that plans for making the most effective use of the noon hour be laid carefully.

It is generally agreed that a hot noon lunch should be provided at school. One simple way of doing this is to have each child bring some cooked food from home in a pint jar with a tight-fitting cover.

¹Clara L. Wilson and Clara C. Evans, "Recess and Noon in Your Rural School," in *The Grade Teacher* for October, 1945, p. 64.

These jars can be heated at school by placing them in a rack in a large pan or roaster or kettle which has a few inches of water in it. Covers must be loosened before the jars are heated. One bulletin suggests the following dishes as suitable for this kind of hot lunch: vegetables-and-meat stew, a hearty soup, a milk drink, mixed vegetables, and cereal cooked in milk.¹ This plan does not take time from other school activities, and it does not involve dishwashing at school. The teacher who decides to follow this procedure and who wishes to make it as effective as possible may call a meeting of the mothers to discuss it. Announcements may be prepared, suggesting how dishes can be prepared and emphasizing that the whole lunch should be planned to provide a balanced meal. If possible, the teacher should get copies of bulletins dealing with school lunch planning from the health department or from the agricultural extension service workers, for distribution to the mothers.

The plan just described has the serious disadvantage that not all mothers may co-operate and the children who most need a hot lunch may not receive it. Serving a hot dish prepared at school provides hot lunches for all children and also offers more opportunities for teaching the children—and the parents—about nutrition.

The preparation and serving of a hot dish at school may seem to be a very difficult problem, but in reality it need not be. Four main problems are involved: securing necessary equipment, getting the food materials, planning the hot dishes to be served, and routinizing the actual work involved.² The lunch hour is properly a part of the school day, and board members will probably be willing to secure the necessary equipment if they are carefully informed of the plans for its use. The main item will be the stove. If a flat-topped stove is used for heating, it can also serve for cooking. Because the heating stove will not be in use every day, and because its heat is not easily regulated, a two-burner or three-burner oil stove is much to be preferred. Electric hot plates, in schools with electricity, are suitable. A small icebox or refrigerator is desirable, but this item is not essential. The cupboard for storing dishes and food supplies must

¹Wyoming State Department of Public Instruction, *School Lunch and Nutrition Education for One-Teacher Schools in Wyoming*, p. 11. Cheyenne, Wyo.: State Department of Public Instruction, 1944.

²*Ibid.*, p. 3.

be one that closes tightly. Some families may be willing to donate the cupboard, or upper-grade boys can make one with some help from their fathers.

Other necessary equipment will include a kettle, a saucepan or double boiler of appropriate size, measuring cups, large spoons and forks, a ladle, knives, a strainer, dishpans and dish cloths and towels, a can opener, a potato masher, and boxes and containers for storing food. The school may supply dishes and silverware or each child may bring his own. Certain food staples can be kept on hand, such as flour, sugar, soda, salt, pepper, and cocoa.

The food may be secured in a variety of ways. In recent years the Federal government has supported a school-lunch program. Some state and local community programs for financing school lunches are in operation. The teacher will want to learn the status of these programs by consulting her supervisor or county superintendent. Some schools make a "cost" charge for the hot lunch, but there are some parents unable to pay it. Some schools try to raise money through entertainments, but this plan is not generally a good one because in small communities it will not produce necessary funds, and, more important, it is best not to look on school programs as money-raising ventures. The most desirable plan is to have the children share in bringing food and, whenever and wherever possible, in producing and storing or preserving as much of it as possible. The school garden project will serve this purpose. If there cannot be a garden at the school, children from different homes may agree co-operatively on what food to raise in their home gardens for the school-lunch program. A co-operative arrangement for canning and storing vegetables may be arranged with the parents. The use of a locker at some refrigeration plant may be arranged for, particularly if there is a co-operative locker project in the community. Many worth-while learnings can be developed in connection with the production, preservation, and storing of food for the school lunch.

Such hot dishes as the following are suitable for preparation at school: potato soup with milk, cream-of-corn soup, tomato soup, cream-of-onion soup, cream-of-celery soup, cream-of-carrot soup, corn chowder, fish chowder, vegetable soup, creamed eggs, and cheese, salmon, and drief beef on bread or toast. Stews, noodles, and spaghetti or macaroni with cheese are other good dishes. In planning

the hot lunches, variety is desirable. Plans should be made far enough in advance to check on supplies and arrange for necessary items. Bulletins with suitable recipes are available from state departments of education, state and local health departments, and agricultural extension service offices.

When the school spirit is good, boys and girls will share willingly both in the work of preparing and serving the hot lunches and in the cleaning-up duties. Co-operative planning can set up committees of cooks, housekeepers, and dishwashers. The duties of these committees may be written and posted after group planning has defined them.

Desk tops should be clean before lunch is served. Paper napkins, individual place mats of oilcloth, or paper towels may be placed on them. The teacher should encourage the children to eat leisurely, and she can lead in making the lunch period a genuinely pleasant social hour. Special emphasis may well be placed on keeping the stove, cupboards, cooking utensils, and dishes very clean. After lunch is over, the dishes should be washed and scalded with boiling water. Proper safety rules must of course be agreed upon and followed. It is best to have only older children handle hot water or work at the stove.

Control of communicable and infectious disease is a school health problem. The teacher has a definite part in the program of controlling communicable diseases in the school community. One of the most important parts in such programs is the promotion of immunization programs. In many rural communities the school is the most effective agency for doing this. The school health records should show which children have received immunizations for various diseases, and how long ago. If such records do not exist, the teacher may collect the information through interviews or by sending short questionnaire forms to the homes. Sometimes the teacher and the children work co-operatively with the public health nurse or doctor in making such a survey.

In many states free immunization clinics are held periodically in the schools. The public health officer is usually in charge, but such matters as notifying the parents, securing the permission slips usually required, and preparing the children psychologically are left to the teacher. The teacher may take the initiative in arranging for such

clinics, if the need is evident. Preschool children in the community are usually included. It should be remembered that some measure of public education, in terms of the need for immunization, may be required. Duplicated materials may be circulated to the homes, or a health worker may be invited to speak at a parent-teacher meeting. Children may approach a clinic with considerable fear. Time spent in building understanding of the purposes of the program, of the work of research workers in developing means of combating communicable diseases, and about the work of doctors and nurses will be well spent.¹

Some schools have special problems in controlling diseases. It is established, for example, that tuberculosis rates are very high among native American Indians, and high among the Spanish-speaking populations in the Western states. Malaria control is a problem in the South. In many areas, Rocky Mountain spotted fever is a threat in the spring months. Each teacher must know the special problems in her region and plan to meet them. State and local health departments are aware of the special needs of different areas and population groups, and they have materials from which the teacher can secure worth-while information. By keeping in touch with those agencies and knowing what services they can give her school, the rural teacher will get much support in her health program.

In the day-to-day living at school, the teacher needs to be alert to suspicious signs of communicable diseases. Children who exhibit such signs may be sent or taken home. Older children may go with younger ones. This rule applies to the common sore throat and the common cold. Teachers may well discuss with parents, early in the term, how important it is that children with sore throats, colds, ear-ache, and the like be kept home and cared for. Unfortunately, it is still common practice in some schools to make special awards for boys and girls who have been neither absent nor tardy during a term. Sometimes lists are published in local papers. Common sense suggests that such practices should be discontinued and the understanding built up in the community that the good school citizen is the one who protects his own health and that of others by staying at home when he is sick.

¹An excellent booklet for children, *The Doctor Is Coming*, is available from The Publication Committee, West Georgia College, Carrollton, Georgia.

School should be a safe place. The National Safety Council has prepared a special bulletin dealing with safety in rural schools. It indicates the important responsibility of the teacher for making the school a safe place for the children:

She should be a leading influence to obtain standard highway signs to mark approaches to the school. She should be instrumental in having the playground resurfaced and should see that equipment is repaired or renewed. She should initiate requests for better protection against fire—additional exits, lightning rods, periodic inspections of heaters and cleaning of chimneys. She should ask for annual testing of the water supply. She should advocate improvement in transportation. She must always be on the alert to provide greater protection for her pupils through the physical plant.

Her program of safety education should teach the children the safe use of the school plant and how to meet such hazards as a neighboring quarry, railroad, pond, river or busy highway.

The teacher is closely concerned with matters of practice and general housekeeping. Her daily activities must not create hazards. She must be constantly watchful that movable chairs and desks, materials for construction and units of work, displays, exhibits and the like do not block exits or cause falls. She must be sure that during school sessions doors are kept unlocked. She must never allow wet clothing to be dried directly over the stove or in close proximity to it.

She should never permit the use of kerosene or other petroleum distillates in kindling a fire, and if it is necessary to keep such fluids on hand, she should see that they are stored well away from the building. She should ventilate the room frequently to free it of noxious gases escaping from stoves or gas fixtures. Any defect in such equipment should be corrected immediately.

In community or special activities she must prevent overtaking of accommodations and insist at all times on strict observance of safety rules.¹

Certain points need emphasis. Many types of playground equipment create accident hazards. It is important that swings, slides, teeter-totters, and merry-go-rounds be constructed properly and kept in good repair; and that children be taught how to use them safely. Fire-building hazards have been mentioned. Every rural

¹National Safety Council, *Safety Education in the Rural School*, pp. 5-6. Used by permission of the Council.

school should have two or more fire extinguishers of a size the teacher and older children can handle. These must be replenished regularly, and children should be taught how to use them. Any fuel for the oil cook stove should be stored in some outbuilding.

School bus accidents are reported frequently enough in the news to convince everyone that bus safety requires attention. State regulations concerning bus construction and operation are steadily improving, but it is still true that in some rural districts little attention is paid to them. There are problems of teaching children how to enter and leave the bus, to look both ways before crossing the road after leaving the bus, and how to act while on the bus so as not to create accident hazard.

In localities where there is danger of excessively strong winds or cyclones, special safety precautions are necessary. Schools in such localities are usually provided with shelters, usually "wind caves" or cellars near the building. Children who live far from school should not be sent home alone in any storm so severe that they may become lost. Teachers are justified in dismissing school early if extremely severe storms threaten or have been forecast. In bad storms, teachers have prevented tragedies by keeping children at school, even overnight, until parents have come for them.

In spite of all precautions, minor and perhaps even major accidents will occur. A complete first-aid kit is standard equipment for every rural school, and the rural teacher who has had a good course in first aid is better equipped for her job. It is clearly desirable that every rural school have a telephone for use in accident or sickness emergencies. The rural teacher, however, must be prepared to deal with emergency situations.

How Schools Can Help Meet the Children's Individual Health Needs

Providing healthful and safe classroom conditions, hot lunch programs, immunization clinics, and the like are largely matters of group health. Often rural teachers encounter health problems of individual children that need attention. In what ways can the school help meet these individual health needs?

Health inspection is a part of daily school routine. Health inspection

is included in the daily routine of almost every schoolroom. Often it is superficial. Sometimes it is conducted in ways that embarrass the children. In country schools where there are not many children, there need be no formal checking. The teacher can observe individual matters that need to be discussed with the children or with their parents in an informal way as she greets the children in the morning and as she moves about the room. Having definite things in mind will systematize this informal observation. Strang and Hatcher suggest the following:

1. Signs of communicable diseases: flushed face, unusual pallor, running nose, red and discharging eyes, coughing and sneezing, sore throat, headache, earache, rash, redness of skin, sores with pus or watery matter, chills or fever, pain in any part of the body.
2. Signs of fatigue: bad posture, listlessness or overactivity and restlessness, lack of endurance.
3. Indications of emotional disturbance: crying, irritability, outbursts of temper, apathy, depression.
4. Signs of malnutrition: hunger, lack of color in lips and cheeks, dark hollows or blue circles under the eyes, marked underweight or overweight, flabby muscles, pale mucous membranes, inattention.¹

Personal care and cleanliness habits may also be observed in informal ways. Individual conferences with children and parent conferences will offer opportunities for guidance. If hostility by the parents to teacher-made suggestions appears, the teacher may ask the public health nurse serving her school to make a home call. Or the teacher and the nurse may call together at the home.

Physical examinations and follow-up work are essential to meet individual needs. Too few rural schools provide for annual health examinations of all children by a doctor or even by a public health nurse. Yet rural schools have their full quota of children who suffer from sight and hearing defects, weak hearts, malnutrition, and chronic diseases. One of the things all rural educators hope for is a rapid extension of adequate health services to the schools.

Some rural schools are able to arrange for health examinations by local doctors, at least for children entering as first graders. The

¹Ruth Strang and Latham Hatcher, *Child Development and Guidance in Rural Schools*, pp. 38-39. Used by permission of Harper and Brothers, publishers.

national Parent-Teacher Association and its local units sponsor "summer roundups" of beginners, as a way of securing health examinations. Even if it seems impossible to arrange examination of all children, the teacher may succeed in having examinations for beginners and for individual children whose health is obviously poor. Home visits, urging physical examinations, sometimes serve to call the parents' attention to matters requiring attention.

With the help of a public health nurse, every teacher can learn to give simple but effective tests of vision and hearing. State departments of health can provide necessary charts and directions. When children seem to be hard of hearing or to have vision defects, the teacher should recommend examination by a competent specialist, and she should be persistent in urging that examinations actually be made. The most distressing thing about school health examinations often is that so little is done to correct the needs revealed. Vigorous action by the teacher in consulting and advising with parents, in enlisting the support and help of public health officials, private physicians, parent-teacher groups, and civic organizations in near-by towns may be necessary if children who need glasses are to get them, and if children who need hearing aids are to have them, and if children whose tonsils should be removed actually undergo the operation.

In the last few years, the Social Security Act program has stimulated maternal and child health work through the various state health departments. Exact programs vary from state to state. Care for crippled children, for children with only partial sight or hearing, and for children with rheumatic fever is widely available. Beyond pressing for action on individual needs through the homes and community groups, each teacher can investigate thoroughly the services available through the state health department. No child with a remediable physical defect, no child suffering from malnutrition, no child with any curable chronic disease should go uncared for. The teacher's responsibility does not end with the notes she sends to the homes after the health examinations. The important steps are yet to be taken.

Special sight-saving schoolbooks are available in most states for children whose vision is seriously impaired. These may usually be obtained through the county school offices.

Health problems have their psychological aspects. Children are sensitive about being hard of hearing, excessively overweight, or crippled. Care must be taken to develop intelligent group attitudes toward health problems, and to see that the children who cannot share in the usual school activities have others provided for them.

Health records are important. State and local health and school authorities usually supply record cards or folders. If these are not furnished, the teacher should ask for them. Many rural teachers may find that there are no health records for the children in their schools; but every teacher can make certain that her successor *will* find health records.

The findings of health examinations and the reports of follow-up work based on them constitute the core of the health record. The teacher may add notes on her interviews with parents, on the daily observations that were outlined above, and on what she learns about the child's health habits from observation at lunch periods. Notes to the effect that certain children must be seated near the front of the room, that others need frequent rest periods, that some children frequently have colds, and the like have real value as parts of the health records.

Modern health record forms provide for "family folders." These include data about the home—its water supply, economic status, and the like. The records of individual children often have a completeness and meaning in relation to the family record which they would not have alone.

Homes and Community Reached by Effective School Health Programs

It is important that the teacher recognize the limitations of the school health program, just as it is important that she recognize the extent to which this program may be developed. Health, obviously, is a problem of the home and the community, too. As a matter of fact, the responsibility of state and national governments in providing health services is constantly being extended. Health is inescapably tied in with the income of the people and with the standard of living that results. The extent of parental understanding of what is involved in building good health is always a factor, hence

public education is a part of the total program. It is true that many homes have inadequate diets even when nearly all foods required for greatly improved nutrition could be produced.

These considerations should not burden the teacher with any feeling that what she can do is insignificant. There are certain things the school can do, not only in improving health conditions for individual children but in developing home and community programs.

The school is the logical agency for co-ordination of the programs of health agencies in rural areas. One of the most effective things the rural teacher can do is bring about co-ordination of the efforts among the various agencies concerned with health. The school is the logical agency to develop such co-ordination. The Southern Rural Life Conference has stated:

The school affords a point of focus for assembling the facilities essential to the translation of knowledge into action, whether the immediate purpose be a service to the school children or a more general community objective.¹

The county or local health unit normally works through the rural school in many of its activities. Medical societies, voluntary organizations such as the Red Cross and the National Tuberculosis Association, and groups concerned with nutrition may likewise carry on work in which the rural school can assume a central role. By enlisting the help of special workers from these groups and bringing them into the school, the teacher can create situations from which incidental leads into home and community situations can be opened.

A more direct approach to co-ordination is through an all-community survey of its health, safety, and recreational needs. In such a survey the children share, working with adults both in and outside the school. The more extensive the survey, the more opportunities there are for enlisting the services of special agencies and groups outside the school. An outgrowth may be the creation of a co-ordinating council or planning committee which is particularly concerned with ways of meeting the health needs.

Another way of making a direct attempt to co-ordinate the agencies concerned with community health is to study the problem

¹Southern Rural Life Conference, *The School and the Changing Pattern of Country Life*, p. 40.

in adult discussion groups and clubs. Group hospitalization insurance programs are sponsored by Farm Bureau organizations, and consideration of the local possibilities of such a plan may stimulate interest in it. National health programs, including the recent proposals for national health service legislation, may be studied by such community groups.

The example of a good school health program will be felt in the community. The influence on health practices in homes by the example set by the school in such matters as heating, lighting, and safety is important. The demonstrated advantages of a safe water supply and of sanitary indoor toilets, and of how these may be secured, will not be lost on the homes. The value of demonstration is reinforced if children and parents share in the work of bringing about improved conditions. The lunch program, especially, is an activity through which parents may be reached. The public health nurse and the home demonstration agent, if brought into the program, can do much incidental but effective adult education in connection with the project. Parent education can also be advanced through the school health clinics, physical examinations, school safety units, as well as through the teacher's efforts to meet the needs of individual children.

The programs of the Sloan Foundation and the Rosenwald Foundation show what can be done in underprivileged areas. Some of the most inspiring evidence of what schools can do to build home and community health programs comes from the schools where the Sloan Foundation has developed its experiment in applied economics. In essence, the objective of the program has been to do something about the discrepancy between available scientific knowledge and its application in people's lives. The nature of the work has developed from the central problems involved in what is commonly called "standard of living"—food, shelter, and clothing. Through re-direction of school learning activities, families have been brought to change farming practices, and steadily improving diets have replaced the terribly inadequate ones which prevailed when the project was launched. Similarly, families have learned how to deal with their clothing and housing needs. The reading materials developed for the schools deal realistically with the everyday problems of living.

The Rosenwald Fund has supported similar promising programs

in the South. Books have been prepared for use in the rural schools, with such titles as these: *Let's Raise Pigs*, *The Doctor Is Coming*, *Let's Cook Lunch*. Like the reading materials prepared for use in the Sloan Foundation programs, these books lead to action. They impart information which is to be used, not merely stored away until examination time.

Summary

There is much ill-health in rural America. Much of it relates to deep-seated social and economic problems like small farm income, poor housing, the conditions under which migratory workers live, and the prevailing inadequate system of public health care. Much of it, too, relates to a failure on the part of some rural people to know and apply best health practices. The school has a major responsibility of promoting the health of school children and, through its program, of improving health in the community at large.

School living should be healthful and safe. The teacher has to deal with such matters as heating, lighting, ventilating, and cleaning the schoolroom. Children can help actively to maintain safe and healthful conditions, and by doing so they learn in an effective way about good health practices. Sanitary toilets are a necessity, not a luxury, in country schools. Every school needs an adequate supply of pure water. Lunch periods offer special opportunities for health building and health education. The teacher has a definite responsibility for controlling communicable diseases.

In meeting individual health needs, the teacher can make skillful use of daily observations and of health examinations. Follow-up work is often neglected, but common sense indicates there is little value in discovering needs unless something is done about them. Vigorous, persistent efforts by the teacher may be necessary. Health records facilitate health programs.

In relating the school health program to the home and the community, the teacher has a difficult task. The school, however, is the logical agency for co-ordinating the efforts of various health groups, and by such co-ordination community needs are served. The influence of the example set by the school will not be lost on the

homes. The programs of the Sloan Foundation and of the Rosenwald Foundation point the way for rural schools to proceed in underprivileged areas.

Questions for Study and Discussion

1. List suggestions to help the rural teacher deal with the lighting problem in the schoolroom.
2. Why is the noon lunch period in rural schools so important?
3. List the equipment needed for serving hot lunches in country schools. Make a second list of dishes that may be prepared for these lunches.
4. What steps should every rural teacher take to ensure school safety?
5. What steps can the teacher take to help control communicable diseases?
6. Why is it desirable to have annual physical examinations for school children?
7. In what different ways may the school health program be extended to the homes and the community at large?
8. Why is the school the logical agency in rural communities for co-ordinating the programs of health agencies?
9. How can the teacher make her daily observations of health conditions of the children most effective?
10. What information should be included in the individual health record?

Activities

1. Have several members of the class collect and mimeograph recipes for dishes for the school noon lunch. Or secure copies of bulletins giving such recipes from the Agricultural Extension Service.
2. Invite the State Health Department to send a speaker to the class to discuss health record forms used in your state, and the rural teacher's part in communicable disease control. Learn from the speaker what services the department can give rural teachers.

3. Have three or four members of the class learn how to give simple vision and hearing tests and demonstrate them for the class.

Bibliography

- Culp, Vernon H., *How to Manage a Rural School*. Minneapolis, Minn.: The Burgess Publishing Company, 1942.
- George Peabody College for Teachers, *The School and the Changing Pattern of Country Life*, Report of the Southern Rural Life Conference. Nashville, Tenn.: The College, 1943.
- Iowa State Department of Public Instruction and State Department of Health, *Rural Schoolhouse Lighting*. Des Moines, Iowa: Iowa State Department of Public Instruction.
- , *Heating and Ventilating Requirements for Rural Schools*. Des Moines, Iowa: Iowa State Department of Public Instruction.
- Mountin, Joseph W.; Pennell, Elliott H.; and O'Hara, Hazel, *Relationship of a Rural Health Program to the Needs of the Area*, Reprint No. 1858, Public Health Reports. Washington, D.C.: Government Printing Office, 1937.
- National Conference on Facilities for Athletics, Recreation, Health and Physical Education, *A Guide for Planning Facilities for Athletics, Recreation, Physical and Health Education*. Chicago: The Athletic Institute, 1947.
- National Safety Council, Inc., Educational Division, *Safety Education in the Rural School*. Chicago: The Council, 1939.
- Strang, Ruth, and Hatcher, Latham, *Child Development and Guidance in Rural Schools*. New York: Harper and Brothers, 1943.
- Tennessee State Department of Education, *Living and Learning in Small Rural Schools*. Nashville, Tenn.: State Department of Education, 1943.
- United States Department of Agriculture, *Better Health for Rural America*. Washington, D.C.: Government Printing Office, 1945.
- W. K. Kellogg Foundation, *Schools Awake*. Battle Creek, Mich.: The Foundation, 1942.
- Works, George A., and Lesser, Simon O., *Rural America Today*. Chicago: The University of Chicago Press, 1942.

INSTRUCTIONAL MATERIALS, SUPPLIES, AND EQUIPMENT

IN RECENT YEARS the traditional study-recite routine of rural school life has changed greatly. Consequently, there has been widespread experimentation with newer types of teaching-learning tools, and much has been learned of how to make effective use of a wide variety of these instructional aids. The fact that rural teachers have so many responsibilities lends emphasis to the need for the very best of equipment in rural schools. This chapter presents a general discussion of the question, "What instructional supplies and equipment are essential for modern rural education?"

Books and periodicals are essential, of course. Accordingly, their use is discussed first. Too often, though, books are the only teaching aids found in rural schools. Audio-visual aids of various types are important, and these are considered in the second section. The possibilities of co-operative arrangements which involve several schools are suggested in the last section.

Books and Periodicals the Basic Supplies

As implied above, there has been much critical evaluation of textbooks and their place in the instructional program, and much adverse criticism has been directed at them. This was probably more at the way they have been used than at the books as tools of learning. For too long, American schools were almost wholly book-learning schools. Modern education does not limit learning experiences to reading and reciting, nor does it depend primarily on such expe-

riences. Books, bulletins, newspapers, and magazines are still as important as formerly, but the ways in which they are used have changed. The change has direct implications for the teacher in relation to the purchase and management of school supplies.

The place of books in rural schools is important because where children of different ages live and learn together in one room, the pupils must often work independent of the teacher. There is a real need in such schools for *self-teaching* instructional materials. Some materials of this type are available.

What is the place of textbooks and workbooks in modern schools? A brief example of modern curriculum development will make clear the part books play in modern schools. A study of school and community safety has been suggested as a worth-while unit to develop early in the term. If such a study is under way, the children may be grouped in committees to handle such subtopics as "Safety with Farm Animals," "Safety with Farm Machines," "Bicycle Safety," "Swimming Safety," "Playground Safety," "Fire Safety," and others. Each group may include children of different ages and children whose reading abilities differ. Each group needs sources of information which can be read successfully by the children. The school may have several of the so-called "safety readers." In addition, single copies of books of varying reading difficulty will be necessary. Good books dealing with safety practices have been written for the different grade levels. Sections dealing with safety in modern health books may be used. The school should have bulletins and pamphlets such as those issued by the National Safety Council, the American Red Cross, life insurance and fire insurance companies, and various other groups.

As the children collect and organize the information, there will be need for periods devoted to learning how to take notes, how to use a book index, how to organize reports, how to study new words, and the like.

Illustrative materials will be available, also. There are a number of excellent motion-picture films dealing with various phases of home and school safety. A study of actual home, school, and community safety problems will further vitalize the unit.

The pupils may use the information they gather in reporting to the class, leading discussions on various topics, making models or

charts or diagrams or posters, and preparing dramatizations of safety rules. The entire unit may culminate in a community program on safety or in the preparation of a "Safety Manual" or in some other activity.

In short, modern curriculum practices demand more, not fewer, books and a greater variety of reading materials than did the old-time study-and-recite curriculum.

In addition to books for use in curriculum experiences like the one suggested above, rural schools need basic textbook series in some subjects. Many modern schools limit the use of such series to reading and arithmetic and enrich the work in those subjects by much use of supplementary materials. In reading, particularly, there should be single copies or more of books for all grades from many sets of readers, and much library material. But there must also be a basic reading series to provide for the systematic growth in reading skills. Social studies, in the modern school, cannot rely on any single text series. Neither can the science curriculum. The teacher may wish to use textbooks, but she will also need to employ much supplementary material and many first-hand experiences to give the program life and meaning. It is encouraging to note that publishing companies are giving more attention to the development of supplementary materials and are issuing much of it in inexpensive bulletin or booklet form.

The problem of workbooks is a thorny one. There are persons who have hailed them as the solution to the old problem of how to manage independent study and work periods in rural schools. This enthusiasm is clearly not justified, at least by workbooks now on the market. One rural school handbook asks this pertinent question: "We have learned that workbooks keep the children busy while we are having other classes, but have we questioned the result in the learning process of our children?"¹ Many workbooks now widely used in rural schools probably serve no worth-while purpose. Some teachers make such extensive use of these books that for the children school life becomes a succession of days spent in completing objective-type exercises of one sort or another. Many workbooks provide

¹Tennessee State Department of Education, *Living and Learning in Small Rural Schools*, p. 63. Reprinted by permission of the Tennessee State Department of Education.

only series of separate, unrelated exercises which are unconnected with functional learning and quite divorced from the children's interests. If used—or perhaps the term should be *misused*—in the routine fashion, workbooks can do more to deaden school life and defeat sound learning than any other single instructional device ever sold.

On the other hand, some workbooks have been carefully developed and are of real value. Most of the basic reading series have accompanying sets of seatwork books which can be used effectively in relation to the basic reading program, particularly in the primary grades. There are some excellent spelling workbooks which provide varied types of word-analysis exercises, suggest good study techniques, and provide systematically for review. There is, of course, a place in the school program for drill periods if such periods grow out of meaningful learning experiences and then relate back to on-going curriculum development. Some teachers have made good use of language and arithmetic workbooks by clipping drill exercise sheets from them, mounting these on durable paper, and filing them systematically in relation to the school curriculum in those subjects. The sheets can then be used for drill and extended practice in relation to the developmental work of the class or for remedial work with individual children.

Perhaps the place of workbooks in modern schools can be summarized by saying that they can serve worth-while purposes if used wisely. Every rural teacher should guard against falling into what has been called the “workbook routine” as a substitute for vital and meaningful teaching.

The rural school library can serve both school and community. One of the unfortunate features of rural schools and rural communities is their lack of adequate library facilities. This lack has two implications for rural teachers. In the first place, it means that for many of them there is little or no opportunity to draw upon a public library for books to supplement the school library. In the second place, it suggests that in the development of rural school libraries it will be desirable to plan to meet the library needs of out-of-school groups as well as the strictly school needs. Many rural schools do not have adequate building facilities, the financial resources, or sufficient staff to maintain adequate joint school-

community libraries, but they may be able to do so in co-operation with other governmental agencies.

In the meantime, the rural teacher must face the situation. If there is a local or a county library, a visit to it early in the term, to check on its resources in terms of school needs, will be well worth while. The teacher can learn what arrangement can be made for the loan of books for some weeks at a time. If there is no local or county library, then the teacher should explore the possibilities of securing boxes of books from the state library or from some near-by college or university. Such a step may lead to the development of a "branch" library in the school, serving the community at large. Schools in areas served by bookmobiles are fortunate.

The teacher also has a direct responsibility for the management of the school library. In some schools the library may consist of only a few old books in a cupboard or on a dusty shelf. To expand it, systematize it, and make it truly useful to the school—and, insofar as possible, to the community—should be one of the teacher's significant challenges. The responsibility is one in which the children can share. It is not a task for a week or a month but a long-range job. The following suggestions are offered as guides to rural teachers in that task.

(1) A modern school library should include a wealth of material both for recreational reading and for informational reading.

There is danger that concern for informational material relating to experience units in the regular curriculum may lead to neglect of books to be read just for the love of reading. There is real need in the rural schools for many periods devoted to story-telling, recreational reading, and oral reading. This same generalization applies to the needs of adults who may use the library. If the book boxes are secured from county or state libraries, some for adults may be requested in each shipment. This possible service may be discussed at a parent meeting.

Every good school library subscribes regularly to a number of children's magazines. Magazines like *Story Parade*, *Wee Wisdom*, *Child Life*, *Boys' Life*, *True Comics*, and *The Junior Natural History Magazine* are not expensive and are very worth while. Their usefulness is increased if new copies are bound or are punched for filing in heavy loose-leaf notebook covers. They may then be kept

for several years, if properly handled. There are also good newspapers for children—*My Weekly Reader*, *Current Events*, and *Junior Scholastic* are examples. Children also find much of interest and value in some adult magazines and in agricultural magazines. Many older boys are interested in publications like *Popular Mechanics* and those dealing with special activities, such as model plane construction.

(2) A regular, systematic book-buying program is necessary to extend and maintain the library's usefulness.

When books are worn, they must be rebound or discarded. New books are published every month. Without regular, systematic purchase of new books, the library soon becomes depleted. Even the poorest rural school can add some good books to its library each and every year. Money for book purchases should come from regular school funds, for the library is an indispensable resource for modern curriculum development. Some schools engage in money-raising ventures of various sorts to supplement the school library funds. This practice is not to be recommended generally, but it may be justifiable and even necessary in some instances. One way or another, the library not only should be maintained but should grow from year to year.

(3) Book selection requires careful thought.

If funds for books are limited, then it becomes even more necessary that those funds be spent wisely. It may be wise for the teacher to enlist the help of a trained librarian by visiting the nearest children's library. Certain standard helps can be consulted, such as *The Children's Catalogue*, published by the H. H. Wilson Company. This catalogue lists several thousand titles of approved books, arranged in alphabetical order by author, title, and subject. Other books present discussions of selected books for children.¹ The American Library Association periodically issues selected lists of good books for children. Review of children's books is featured regularly in the Sunday editions of *The New York Times* and *The New York Herald Tribune*, and in some professional magazines for teachers. Many state departments of education issue lists of approved and recommended books for rural school libraries.

¹See such books as Anna T. Eaton's *Reading with Children and Treasure for the Taking* (New York: The Viking Press, 1940 and 1946).

Children, too, may share in the preparation of book orders. As a matter of fact, having them do so is one excellent way of developing their ability to evaluate books critically.

(4) Much useful material in old books is worth saving.

Good use may be made of valuable selections from old books by clipping the pages and binding them in folders or in loose-leaf notebook covers. If these folders are indexed, they become valuable additions to the library. Stories, poems, informational articles, maps, and sometimes pictures are worth saving. Children can share in the work of preparing these materials for library use.

(5) Every school library needs good reference books, atlases, and dictionaries suitable for children's use.

The cost of reference books, especially the standard sets, may seem high. No set should be purchased until it has been carefully evaluated. Too often, agents sell reference sets to rural school board members. The selection of reference books is one to be made by professional workers. The teacher may ask the advice of the supervisor or the county superintendent. Some state departments of education make recommendations on reference sets. There are several excellent dictionaries for use by middle-grade and upper-grade children, and some dictionaries with large print and good illustrations have been published for use by primary-grade children.

(6) Much free and inexpensive material of various kinds can be secured for the rural school library.

There are several guides to such material. The *Elementary Teachers' Guide to Free Curriculum Materials*¹ lists in systematic form the free material available to schools. This index, brought up to date annually, costs only a small sum. Many county school offices have copies of it. Teachers' colleges often prepare guides to such materials, and teachers can watch the advertising in educational journals. National groups like The National Dairy Council, The Association of American Railroads, and others issue booklets and folders of illustrative and informational material. Farm machinery companies sometimes have excellent bulletins and posters. In using materials issued by commercial groups, it is necessary to guard against the propaganda of special-interest groups. As a general

¹Published by Educators Progress Service, Randolph, Wisconsin.

rule, however, materials prepared specifically for school use by such groups are quite free of objectionable content.

(7) Government agencies are an excellent source of materials for rural school libraries.

Bulletins issued by the Agricultural Extension Service, the Soil Conservation Service, the National Park Service, and the United States Forest Service are especially good and relate closely to excellent curriculum experiences for rural children. A list of publications of all government agencies may be secured from the Superintendent of Documents, United States Government Printing Office, Washington 25, D.C. Many bulletins can be obtained from local and county offices of these agencies. Recently much excellent illustrated material has been made available.

(8) A good library requires efficient management.

Books and other publications added to the library should be indexed in a card file or in a loose-leaf notebook, and some easily handled method of checking material loaned from the library should be devised. The plan need not be elaborate. Some persons have recommended that rural teachers classify the library according to the standard Dewey Decimal System. However, the 1936 *Yearbook* of the Department of Rural Education of the National Education Association of the United States makes this statement:

It is very seldom that either the size of the library or the possibilities of future expansion would justify an extended use of the Dewey Decimal System, even in its abridged form, in one- or two-room rural schools.¹

In larger schools the standard library classification system is best, of course. In the small schools, the essential requirement is that book records be simple, accurate, and usable. The children should be able to manage the records and should learn how to care for the books and how to repair them.

(9) The library room, or library corner, can be made a comfortable and inviting place.

A rug on the floor, a desk light, a table where books are displayed, a comfortable easy chair or rocking chair, a small framed

¹National Education Association of the United States, Department of Rural Education, *Rural School Libraries: Yearbook*, 1936, p. 63.

bulletin board for book news, simple charts recording what books the different children have read—all these may be used to add to the interest appeal of the library center.

Extensive Use of Audio-Visual Aids by Modern Schools

The use of audio-visual aids in schools is not entirely new, of course. Schools have long used such standard equipment as globes, maps, posters, and photographs. Only in recent years, however, has the extensive use of a wide variety of audio-visual aids become standard practice in many classrooms. The field is one of the newer ones in education and, like many others, one in which rural schools lag behind city schools. Yet rural schools have as great, or even greater, need for the use of such aids as city schools. Economy of time is a matter of strategic importance; and direct environmental experiences with many important aspects of contemporary life are limited for many rural children. Effective use of audio-visual aids can do much for rural schools.

A radio is essential equipment in modern rural schools. The power of the radio, as a force for education in the modern world, is tremendous. It has not been fully developed, nor is any final appraisal of its power in molding public opinion available. As everyone knows, however, the kind of programs offered the listening public is directly related to the dependence of radio upon advertising revenue. The question of final control over radio is one which still troubles the society in which it is as yet a relatively new instrument of communication.

Because the potentialities of radio communication are so great, realistic education in the problems involved is a serious responsibility of the public schools. The historic concepts of "freedom of the press" and "freedom of speech" have new meanings in terms of modern radio communication. For this reason alone, if for no other, every school should have a radio. Education in intelligent listening and on the problems of radio communication generally may be either direct or incidental. In upper grades, at least, it may properly be both.

Apart from this consideration, it is also true that the effectiveness

of radio as a teaching aid is safely past the experimental stage. Research studies have shown that use of the radio in public schools can stimulate pupil interests and effectively promote desirable learning. Some practical suggestions for effective use of the radio in rural schools will indicate its possibilities.

(1) Children can listen regularly to news broadcasts.

The question of what straight news reporting involves and of the need for careful weighing of opinions and viewpoints offered by news commentators can be discussed. The need for hearing both sides of the question and the problems involved in having both sides presented freely can be considered. It can be shown that news-casts, by their very nature condensed and fleeting, must be supplemented by newspaper and news-magazine reading if a topic is to be gone into thoroughly. It is not enough simply to have the children listen to news broadcasts. Like other experiences, such listening requires guidance by the teacher.

(2) Radio addresses of world leaders can be heard in the classroom.

By relating addresses of world-wide importance, and reports from national and world meetings, to newspaper reading and to maps and bulletin board materials the study of current events can be vitalized.

(3) Radio brings good music to the most remote rural school.

In its limited opportunity for hearing good music, the rural community is seriously handicapped. This can be overcome, in part, by the use of radio in rural schools.

(4) Much information of importance to rural people is broadcast.

Children in upper grades will be interested in livestock and farm produce market reports, and in discussions like those presented in "The National Farm and Home Hour." Weather forecasts have real meaning for rural people. Much of this sort of information can be used in building meaningful experiences in arithmetic, science, and the social studies.

(5) The radio provides quiet recreational listening activity.

The time just after children finish eating lunch may be a difficult one in rural schools if the teacher tries to have a short rest period before active play begins. This time may be made pleasant and interesting if the school has a radio. There will be other times when the radio can be used simply for listening and resting purposes.

In addition to the uses suggested above, some state departments

of education arrange and present regular broadcasts for the schools. The suggested daily program for rural schools in Kansas provides for radio listening at certain times each week. Some programs from state government agencies and from universities and colleges are broadcast to the schools. It will be worth while for the teacher to learn what special programs can be used in her region.

The phonograph is a valuable asset. Probably the most widely known rural school use of this instrument has been in connection with the "rural choir plan" of music teaching. This plan, developed by C. A. Fullerton,¹ has been used in a great many states. Briefly, it is a plan for teaching singing by use of the phonograph. It has been adversely criticized by some, yet it has been helpful to rural teachers who have lacked training in music, and it has served to bring together children in county-wide and even state-wide groups for large group singing.

The phonograph is also widely used to develop acquaintance with and appreciation of the world's great music. Like book selection for the library, record buying requires careful thought. Unless the teacher feels competent to make selections, some guide should be followed. Reference made to lists issued by state departments of education may be helpful. The advice of a music teacher in a teachers' college or university may be secured.

Skillful use of pictures can enrich the curriculum. There are of course many kinds of pictures. Every school can secure and use flat, unprojected pictures such as photographs, prints, magazine and advertising folder illustrations, and post cards. The teacher and the children can systematically collect, clip, mount, and file these. McKown and Roberts suggest that the way pictures are mounted is a matter of considerable importance in determining their future usefulness.² Mounting material should be durable and of a color that either harmonizes with the picture or emphasizes it. The picture should be trimmed neatly and placed accurately on the mounting material. Rubber cement is probably the best material for mounting pictures. Accurate, complete labeling and a

¹Charles A. Fullerton, *New Elementary Music*. Chicago: Follett Publishing Company, 1936.

²Harry C. McKown and Alvin B. Roberts, *Audio-Visual Aids to Instruction*, pp. 109-110.

short sentence or question relating to the chief item or feature of the picture adds to its usability. A fuller explanation may be placed on the back.

Picture selection, too, requires more than casual thought. It is important that pictures to be used in class instruction be authentic, accurate, clear and distinct, and large enough to show detail. Teaching effectively with pictures calls for practiced skill. Unless the picture is relatively simple, children will need time to study it, preferably at close range. Children may gather near the teacher, if necessary. Smaller pictures can be circulated throughout the group and used on the bulletin board. Careful questioning will bring out the ideas the teacher hopes to clarify or emphasize by use of the pictures.

A special type of picture, and a very useful one, is the stereograph. It gives depth, or perspective, to the illustration. The use of the stereoscope, or stereograph viewer, was popular in homes a few decades ago. Every school can make profitable use of several of these. A number of companies produce stereographs relating to common curriculum units, and viewers of different types are available. Both viewers and pictures are relatively inexpensive. By adding a set or two of stereographs each year, an extremely useful library of visual teaching aids can be developed.

A number of different types of projectors for throwing still pictures on screens are available. These include the standard lantern-slide projector, film-strip projectors of different types and sizes, and opaque projectors. The question of which type to select is not easily answered. Schools large enough to purchase and use them, or smaller schools doing so on a co-operative basis with other schools, should secure the advice of competent persons before making a selection. Visual-aids specialists on college and university staffs and in state departments of education may be consulted.

Motion pictures play an increasingly important role in classroom teaching and learning. Many schools are equipped with both silent and sound motion-picture projectors. For the small rural school, the problem of securing and using motion pictures is difficult. Projectors are fairly expensive. Rental for films adds to the cost of a motion-picture program. The problem may be solved by developing co-operative film libraries. A good many colleges and universities

have established co-operative film library centers for public schools in their areas.

Even so, the matter of scheduling films so as to have them when they may most effectively be used in connection with specific units of work is not always easy to handle. It is safe to say that motion pictures will become more and more important in rural schools, but it may be that the development of effective programs for their use must await the development of more effective rural school administrative patterns.

At times the rural schools can arrange for the showing of films by the county agricultural agent, the district soil conservation supervisor, the county health nurse, or other public officials. Many of these films are of interest and value for adults as well as children, and the showing of them may be made a school-community affair.

Maps and globes help build understanding of the modern world. No modern school can develop an effective curriculum without a good supply of wall maps, an atlas, and a good globe. Of the different types of maps, probably the most useful one is the physical-political map. It surpasses the more frequently used political or political-physical maps in usefulness because it can be used to show how the ways in which people live are influenced by environmental factors. Similarly, the most useful globe is the one showing physical features.

A good deal of experimentation with different types of maps is currently under way. "Air-age" maps, showing the world in terms of the new distance relationships created by air transportation, are one example. Pictorial maps, attractively colored, are available for different subjects. A useful collection of small maps clipped from newspapers and magazines, and of highway maps of various states, may be built up as a social studies library file.

Rural schools can make effective use of real objects, specimens, and models. Children of elementary school age are naturally good collectors. This interest can be used in the development and care of a school museum, perhaps beginning with nothing more than a cupboard or a set of shelves. Any comprehensive listing of items suitable for such a museum is impossible or at least impracticable, since there are many different kinds of items that may have value. There may be a collection of various pioneer life articles, including

old guns, spinning wheels, old costumes, cooking utensils, old photographs; of coins and stamps from foreign lands; of specimens of plant life, including pressed and dried and mounted flowers and leaves and whole plants; of dinosaur bones and other fossil remains; of Indian relics, such as arrowheads and pottery; of samples of types of soil; of interesting rocks and ores and petrified wood. This list is only suggestive. Resourceful teachers and children will want to expand it. Some schools arrange for exchange of articles with children in other parts of the country or in other lands.

Some exhibit items clearly will have more permanent value than others, and one phase of museum management is periodic sorting and discarding of items.

Making the Audio-Visual-Aids Program Serve Several Schools

The outline of audio-visual aids given in this chapter is only a brief, suggestive one. It is intended to stimulate interest in these teaching-learning helps, and to suggest that all rural teachers advance the use of such teaching materials in their schools. Many items of audio-visual-aids equipment are expensive, however, and school boards often are reluctant to purchase them.

One solution to this problem may be the organization of a kind of co-operative "materials bureau" for pooling financial resources, and co-operative administration and use of the equipment. Much audio-visual-aids equipment is used only irregularly and can well be circulated among co-operating schools. Teachers will do well to explore the possibilities of organizing such projects, either on a community or a county-wide basis.¹

Summary

Books and periodicals are important in schools today, as always, but their use has changed. Workbooks, too, can be used effectively, but they present grave dangers against which teachers must guard.

¹See the report by Marie McIver, "Materials Bureau—A Co-operative," in *Phi Delta Kappan* for December, 1940, pp. 168-170.

Modern teaching methods make the availability of a good library immensely important. Rural teachers can do much to improve and extend the resources of their school libraries.

Audio-visual aids can greatly enrich and vitalize the work in rural schools. Every school needs a radio, a phonograph, and an adequate supply of modern maps and globes. Valuable files of pictures can be developed by teacher and children. Real objects, specimens, and models can be collected. A school museum may be started. Because audio-visual-aids programs are somewhat expensive, rural schools may well join in co-operative groups for the purchase and use of necessary equipment and materials.

Questions for Study and Discussion

1. Discuss the ways in which the place of the textbook in curriculum development has changed.
2. What are the dangers of relying too much on workbooks?
3. Suggest educationally worth-while uses of workbooks in rural schools.
4. Why is it desirable to have several good newspapers and magazines in the rural school library?
5. List and discuss the steps the rural teacher can take to improve the rural school library.
6. What desirable purposes can a radio serve in the rural school?
7. How can the teacher go about developing a truly useful file of pictures? Be quite specific.
8. What are the possible advantages of a co-operative materials bureau for rural schools?
9. What resources of the immediate community may be worth collecting for a school museum?
10. What kinds of maps does the modern rural school need?

Activities

1. Secure a file of catalogues from regional school supply companies and from map companies. Place these in some easily accessible

reading room for members of the class to browse through. Some may wish to make equipment lists for the rural teacher's first year.

2. The suggestion was made on page 93 that members of the class begin to collect files of pictures. Bring these files to class and share what you have learned about collecting, mounting, and filing pictures and other materials in a general class discussion.

Bibliography

- Bowen, Genevieve, *Living and Learning in a Rural School*. New York: The Macmillan Company, 1944.
- Culp, Vernon H., *How to Manage a Rural School*. Minneapolis, Minn.: The Burgess Publishing Company, 1942.
- McKown, Harry C., and Roberts, Alvin B., *Audio-Visual Aids to Instruction*. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, 1940.
- National Education Association of the United States, Department of Rural Education, *Rural School Libraries: Yearbook*, 1936. Washington, D.C.: The Association, 1936.
- , *Newer Types of Instruction in Small Rural Schools: Yearbook*, 1938. Washington, D.C.: The Association, 1938.
- National Education Association of the United States, Department of Supervisors and Directors of Instruction, *Newer Instructional Practices of Promise: Twelfth Yearbook*. Washington, D.C.: The Association, 1940.
- Olsen, Edward G., and Others, *School and Community*. New York: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1945.
- Tennessee State Department of Education, *Living and Learning in Small Rural Schools*. Nashville, Tenn.: State Department of Education, 1943.
- Weber, Julia, *My Country School Diary*. New York: Harper and Brothers, 1946.
- White House Conference on Rural Education, 1944, *Proceedings*. Washington, D.C.: National Education Association of the United States, 1945.
- Wofford, Kate V., *Teaching in Small Schools*. New York: The Macmillan Company, 1946.

THE SCHOOL PLANT AND SCHOOL HOUSEKEEPING

THE ADEQUACY AND CONDITION of the school buildings and grounds does much to determine the program of the rural school. The influence of the school environment on general school morale is very real. Functional, attractive, clean schoolrooms and well-kept and adequately equipped school grounds make for happy, healthy living and learning. Poorly planned, drab, dirty schoolrooms and bare schoolyards, on the other hand, contribute to unwholesome attitudes and behavior. The matters of the school plant and of "keeping house" in it are therefore of major importance. A great deal has been said already in earlier chapters on this topic. The present chapter develops the discussion more fully.

First, general consideration is given the matter of rural school buildings and grounds. Emphasis is placed on the need for modern, functional rural school plant facilities. However, it must be admitted that in the years ahead many rural teachers must continue to work in old buildings. The second section therefore deals with ways of making effective use of whatever facilities the school may offer. The final section suggests how the simple but important everyday routines of school housekeeping may be managed by the teacher and children working together.

What Can Be Done to Improve Rural School Buildings

In appraising the adequacy of rural school plant facilities, it must be remembered that rural schools have a long history of in-

adequate financial support. The confusion and general lag in district organization has contributed to this. Recent years have not been ones in which much construction of school buildings has been possible. Through the long depression years, far too many districts were too hard pressed to meet such immediate financial needs as teachers' salaries and necessary instructional supplies to do much in the way of building repair and construction. While the war years brought more prosperity to rural America, they also brought severe limitations on building projects, and the war and post-war years brought high building costs. The net result of these factors has been the neglect for decades of the building needs of rural schools. There are persons who believe, also, that a serious lack of community interest and public pride in school plant facilities exists.

Too many rural schools are handicapped by obsolete buildings. Nearly all studies of rural school needs give prominence to the need for better buildings. The report of the White House Conference on Rural Education states:

Unfortunately, the location, plan, facilities, equipment, and sites of most existing rural school plants make it well-nigh impossible to provide an adequate program of educational services for rural youth.¹

Henry J. Otto sees in the condition of most school plants a reflection on educational leadership and on public concern about the schools. He says²:

The inadequacy of existing school facilities is a distinct handicap to current educational programs, but of equal if not greater significance is the educational leadership and community low-ebb interest in education that allowed the school buildings to degenerate into their present inadequate, dilapidated, uncared-for condition. Financial inability is not a legitimate excuse in most school districts for not keeping school buildings in good repair and reasonably up to date in their facilities. If the people had been more interested, as their forefathers were, in having the best schools as judged by the educational needs of the times, and had been given the facts as to what constituted an up-to-date school, most school plants would not be in

¹The White House Conference on Rural Education, 1944, *Proceedings*, p. 165.

²Henry J. Otto, *Elementary School Organization and Administration*, pp. 536-537. Reprinted by permission of D. Appleton-Century Company, Inc., publishers.

their present unsatisfactory condition. The poor school facilities found throughout this country represent a blight on educational leadership and public concern about education.

One of the most important facts to be grasped by persons interested in rural education is that, the country over, rural school buildings are old, in serious disrepair, and inadequate for the housing of modern educational programs. Mid-nineteenth century buildings and grounds and furniture in mid-twentieth century rural American schools constitute serious handicaps to the schools. Because these conditions severely limit the usefulness of the school in community life, the handicap is felt not only by the schools but also in many areas of rural community life.

Improvement in rural school plant facilities must involve action at local, state, and national levels. Long-range building programs must relate to plans for reorganization of administrative and attendance units. There is danger that construction of new buildings on present sites might "freeze" existing patterns of administrative units in many cases. A building stands a long time, a consideration which points to the need for planning and co-ordinating building programs on a scale broader than the one afforded by local districts acting independently. State departments of education necessarily must exercise leadership in district reorganizations, and building programs must be viewed in relation to their problems. In this connection it is pertinent to note again that administrative units and attendance units are not synonymous. Within any one administrative unit there may be, and in many cases should be, several attendance units, and hence several school plants.

The problem of financing school plant construction continues to be difficult of solution. It is a problem requiring more than local action. Expert opinion today, generally, is in agreement that both the state and the Federal government must share in providing money for school plant needs. The need for state and Federal aid springs from the wide inequalities in distribution of wealth among different districts and among the states. It is generally true that rural areas must provide for the education of proportionately larger numbers of children and do so with relatively less wealth than urban districts. Because many of the young people educated in rural schools will inevitably join the cityward migration soon after their rural school-

ing is completed, the argument for state and Federal financial assistance to rural school building projects applies with special force. A number of states already provide state aid specifically for rural school buildings. The splendid plant facilities found in the central rural districts in New York, where there is generous financial aid based on recognition of the needs and the wealth of the district, show how successful such policy can be.

Less tangible, perhaps, but of fundamental importance is the matter of arousing public opinion to the need of modern school buildings and grounds. Here the individual rural teacher has a real responsibility. A beginning point is the demonstration of need for facilities in terms of a developing program of school and community activities. Further, demonstration of the influence of attractive and healthful schoolrooms through skillful use of whatever facilities are available may open the way for community discussion and planning for still better school plants.

The planning of rural school plants should be guided by certain general considerations. The starting point in considering what school plant facilities are needed must necessarily be the kind of program the school is to serve. The initial step therefore becomes consideration of the question, "What are the educational needs of the community?"

In education, as in other social institutions, the weight of traditional practice and institutionalized forms is great. Hence it is necessary to re-examine basic ideas as any community sets out to define or describe its educational needs. Education today is inclusive of many activities not defined as education a half century ago; and educational needs will keep changing in the years to come as society changes.

It is impossible to offer any detailed answer to the question of what activities are to be provided for in any community school plant. The activities will naturally differ for a plant that is for an elementary school only and for one that is to include a high school. They will differ, too, in terms of what other community meeting and community recreation facilities are to be available. Yet it is possible to suggest certain activities for which every modern plant should provide facilities. These, of course, include the basic instructional activities beginning with the kindergarten. In addition, accommoda-

tions for physical education and play activities, health services, food preparation and serving, library services, instruction in home-making and agriculture, experiences in the arts and crafts, and the use of audio-visual aids constitute a minimum list. Special consideration must be given, too, to the needs of out-of-school groups including youths and adults. The recreation needs of the community touch directly on school plant planning. In one-teacher and two-teacher schools much use can be made of a single community room with facilities for the preparing and serving of food. In larger schools, proportionately more extensive facilities are needed.

One of the most interesting developments of recent years in school plant planning has been the growth of the "park-school" concept.¹ Essentially, it is an expression of the idea that functions traditionally assigned to schools and to parks separately can best be carried on if the park and the school are developed as a unit. Logically, this idea closely relates the *recreational* and *educational* needs of the community. Though this development has so far been limited largely to urban and suburban centers, it is a challenging concept for rural communities.

Still another consideration arises from the problem of providing desirable living quarters for rural teachers. Many persons believe that the fact rural communities often do not afford suitable living arrangements is one reason why it has been difficult to secure and hold the best teachers in the rural schools. A good many schools have sought to answer this need by providing living quarters in the school building or in a separate building on the school grounds. In some one-teacher and two-teacher schools the apartment adjoins the classrooms and the community room. It seems probable that more good teachers can be attracted to rural school positions if attractive and comfortable apartments can be provided for them. New developments in housing, such as the prefabricated units, may contribute to the solution of this problem.

Another problem that has long troubled rural educators is how to provide special service facilities which, because of their cost, cannot justifiably be included in every school building. A good many suggestions have been offered for the use of mobile units. The best

¹Robert E. Everly and John McFadzean, "Park-Schools," in *The American City* for January, 1940, pp. 53-54.

known use of such units to date has been in connection with the extension of library services to small, isolated schools and communities. The adaptation of the mobile unit idea to other school activities is a challenging thought. Health and dental service facilities, for example, are relatively costly; not every rural school can make extensive provision for them. Yet health units developed during the war and similar ones now in use in public health programs in this country have demonstrated that mobile health facilities can be provided. It would seem that with some ingenuity and planning, mobile units providing facilities for the essential school health services can be developed. Some rural-education leaders have suggested that this idea can be developed also to bring shop facilities and other types of special services to small rural schools.

Making Effective Use of Available Facilities

Rural teachers in the years just ahead are likely to find themselves working in old, inadequate buildings rather than in new and modern ones. They will face the very real problem of how to make the school-rooms as "livable" as possible. Energetic, resourceful teachers have demonstrated many times that a great deal can be done.

Old buildings can be cleaned and redecorated. Every school can be made clean, and can be kept so. The help of the children and their parents may be needed in an initial clean-up campaign. Sometimes a major redecorating job is needed. A report of such a project in a Wyoming rural school follows:

REDECORATING THE GROVER SCHOOL—A COMMUNITY PROJECT

At the invitation of the Lincoln County Superintendent of Schools, the Assistant State Supervisor of Adult Homemaking conducted an experimental community project of redecorating a rural school at Grover.

The project was planned and conducted with five major objectives in mind:

1. The project would be a means of contacting people not reached through adult homemaking classes.
2. The project would aid in teaching those participating about line, color, painting and decorating.

3. The activity being conducted at the local school would create community interest and lead to other community improvement projects.
4. School teachers and administrators would have an opportunity to see the value of this type of teaching and how it added to the subject-matter curriculum.
5. It would provide an opportunity for parents and children to work together toward a common goal which could also be done in their own homes.

After securing approval of school administrators and teachers, the project got under way the last week of March. The school building had four large classrooms, two lavatories, and a kitchen in one end of the large central hallway. Since only two classrooms were in use, it was possible to use one of the others for a work shop, while decorating the fourth room. During the first week, a meeting was held with the men and women of the community to explain the project and to solicit their co-operation.

There were thirty-eight pupils in the school in grades one to seven. The first week an attempt was made to go on with the school program. When lessons were prepared and classes not in session, students were permitted to go to the work room to remove the finish from their own desks. During the second week pupils, teachers, parents, and grandparents and other interested community citizens went to work on the project in earnest. School was dismissed and no attempt was made to hold classes again until the project was completed two weeks later.

Desks were refinished. Woodwork was painted, plaster was patched, blackboards and lockers were repaired, floors were sanded and walls painted. Two classrooms were completed during the three-week period. "Open House" was held for the community, and for other teachers of the district. The school board offered to pay for all paint for all the schools of the district if they would undertake similar community projects. The people of the community contrasted the completed rooms with the lavatories, the hallway, and the unoccupied rooms and decided they would like to complete the job. One of the classrooms was offered to the community as a permanent meeting place for community groups if they would redecorate and repair it.

A great deal of individual as well as group instruction was given on all phases of the work. Many tried redecorating their own homes after they had gained some self-confidence working on the school building. Many men and women asked for specific help with their

redecorating problems. Parents even solicited the opinions of their children and gave them some responsibility in the home project.

The children felt that they had learned a great deal from their work. Higher standards of cleanliness, a better understanding of work, upkeep of the building, and more consideration for one another were some of the results of the project. A few comments noted were:

"I'll sure have to wash my hands better because they make marks on my desk."

"We can't write our spelling words on our desks now!"

"I'll never stand on my desk or put gum on it again."

"This is the prettiest room I ever saw."

One other rural school project was completed before the school year ended. And the people did go ahead and redecorate the third room for community use.¹

Reports of similar projects were featured in 1946 in an article in a leading farm magazine.² Often the total gains from such a project go far beyond schoolroom improvement and touch on parent education, home life, and community spirit. It is probably best to launch the project before the school term actually opens, but it can very properly be given time during the regular school year, if necessary.

Many rural schools have oiled their floors annually for years. Oiled floors are grimy and dark, and they soil everything that touches them. A thorough scrubbing with lye or soap compounds will do much to clean old oiled floors, and once cleaned, they may be sealed or covered with such durable material as heavy linoleum. The playground can be cleaned and kept neat. A well-cared-for lawn, even if only a small one, adds greatly to the attractiveness of the school grounds. So, too, does a painted flag pole. The school flag should be replaced when it becomes worn or dirty. Much can be done with simple landscaping of school grounds.³ A rock garden with wild flowers and shrubs can be developed by the children. Flowers may be transplanted from near-by woods; or they can be raised in

¹Report by Eva H. Larson, Assistant Supervisor of Adult Homemaking, Wyoming State Department of Education, Cheyenne, Wyoming, November 23, 1946.

²See F. J. Keilholz, "That School Is Your Problem," in *Country Gentleman* for September, 1946, pp. 16-17.

³*Suggestions for Landscaping Community Schools* is a bulletin issued by the Interstate School Building Service, George Peabody College for Teachers, Nashville, Tennessee.

window boxes in the late winter and then transplanted in the spring to the school grounds. Some rural schools maintain birdhouses and bird feeding stations, and relate these to a study of native birds. If the school grounds must be fenced, this will be a relatively simple task if the fathers will help for a few days. An outdoor fireplace on the school grounds, with picnic tables and benches, may be the beginning of a community park.

Ample play space is one asset of most rural schools. Too often the space is all there is to the playground, however. The teacher, children, and parents will be justified in giving considerable time and attention to the development of play facilities. Teeter-totters, swings, turning bars, high-jump standards, and sandboxes can be made and installed. Courts for basketball, soft ball, volley ball, and horseshoe pitching can be laid out. Boys and girls of high school age may wish to help with the work and use the facilities when they are ready. If there is a pond or a fair-sized stream near the school, a small amount of work will make a skating pond for school and community use during the winter months. In her delightful book *My Country School Diary*, Julia Weber tells how a small playhouse built on the school grounds became a popular play center for the younger children.

Movable seating furniture is best for modern schools. Like the building and the grounds, the school furniture and schoolroom arrangement problems are to be considered in terms of the program they are to serve. The old-time schoolroom, with its long rows of stationary seats and desks facing the teacher's desk on its raised platform, with a "recitation bench" at the front of the room, was a proper setting for a study-recite program. Modern stress on group activities, committee work, construction projects, and informal school living suggests that schoolrooms today should be furnished and arranged quite differently.

In recent years there has been considerable experimentation with different types of seating furniture. Perhaps the ideal type is yet to be developed. A study by Long shows that there is general preference among educators for tables and chairs for groups of four to eight in the lower grades; and for a combination of group tables, chairs, and movable desks for children in the upper grades.¹ Some teachers,

¹See R. B. Long, "Choice of Equipment," in *The Nation's Schools* for September, 1940, pp. 39-48.

however, find that there are disadvantages in having groups of four to six children at a table. Individual table-desks and chairs avoid those disadvantages, and they can be grouped to form larger work centers when desired. Individual chairs can be moved about the room when children gather for group singing, story-telling, or similar activities. Drawer or shelf space can be provided in the individual tables. Cubbyhole space along the wall can be provided for storing infrequently used supplies. The furniture can be finished in natural light-wood colors or it may be painted any soft, attractive color. Some persons believe that a light but not glossy table top, with the rest of the table somewhat darker, is best for vision.

Even old-time stationary desks and seats can be adapted to modern informal schoolroom arrangement if they are mounted on strips of wood in units of two or three seats and desks. In a schoolroom with this type of furniture, it is well to provide several tables of different heights and chairs of appropriate sizes, for the groups to meet and work at them. Secondhand tables may be secured at little cost or may be obtained from the homes. Table legs can be sawed off to make the table the right size for primary-grade children. The tables can be cleaned and painted, or they can be covered with linoleum or attractive oilcloth.

Movable furniture makes it possible to clear space for group games on stormy days, for school parties, for large group school projects, and for games and dancing at community meetings.

It is important to provide ample storage and filing space. Modern schools make use of a wide range of materials and a varied program of activities. Consequently, much storage and filing space is needed. Classroom wall space, between or below windows or at the end of the room, may be used for cabinets and shelves. Attractive open shelves for such supplies as paint jars, brushes, boxes of crayons, and clay may be made by the children from boxes and crates. These may be painted or covered with wallpaper. Bookshelves for the younger children should be low enough for easy use. One simple way of providing shelf space is to use wide boards and build them into shelves with loose bricks. A good-sized cupboard with wide, high shelves, such as may be found in many farm kitchens, provides much good storage space for school equipment. The shelves set aside for lunch equipment should be partitioned off from the others.

Storing art work done on large sheets of drawing paper or wrapping paper presents a special problem. If the bottom edge of the blackboard is set out from the wall several inches, pieces of plywood may be hinged to the wall at floor level and hooked to the bottom edge of the chalk tray. This provides space especially suited for storing large sheets of paper. The plywood can be finished to harmonize with the rest of the room.

As has been suggested, each school needs a good filing cabinet. Steel filing cases large enough for 9-inch \times 12-inch folders are best. These are inexpensive and can be secured from all school supply companies, office supply houses, and most mail-order stores. If modern filing cabinets cannot be secured, cardboard boxes of suitable sizes can be found. These should be deep enough to have plywood or cardboard covers fitted over them to keep dust from settling in the files. In one way or another, space can be provided to file newspaper and magazine clippings, maps, samples of school work, cumulative school records, and the like.

Effective room arrangement promotes good school living. Much of what has been said has suggested ideas about room arrangement. What is "best" arrangement will depend on what activities are under way. If children are working on a large mural, the seats may be pushed back so that the mural can be spread on the floor along one side of the room. Or it may be spread along the blackboard and taped there while the children work. Seats may be pushed to the walls and a space cleared in the center of the room for rhythmic games and folk dancing. Desks may be shoved together in three or four groups as committees meet to plan group reports. All the children may gather on chairs or sit on rugs placed around the piano or the phonograph or the radio. Flexibility, in terms of the nature of the work under way, is the keynote to effective room arrangement. It is well to remember, though, that reading groups and library tables should be placed so as to get the best possible light.

Orderly organization of activities is facilitated by the arrangement of different "work centers" in the room. There may be a science center, an art center, an industrial arts and crafts center, and a reading center. If the building is a modern one with several small rooms adjoining the large classroom, the various work centers may be set up in different rooms.

Even in a strictly one-room school, various centers can be developed. For example, the Tennessee rural school bulletin offers these suggestions for the science center:

The science center is an ever-changing spot. It changes with the season and with the interest foremost at the time. Moths crawl from cocoons, eggs hatch, and seeds become plants. Through an understanding of things from the world about them, children and teacher establish a natural, friendly relationship among themselves. Every child, big and little, can contribute to the science center.

Small tables, shelves, and wall space may be used for exhibiting collections. Each exhibit should tell a story. Items must be clearly labeled. A bulletin board should be provided upon which to post pictures, stories, and other appropriate types of science materials. The thermometer, barometer, and weather charts are at home in the science center.¹

The arts and crafts center may be in one corner of the room near the cupboard where paints, brushes, colored chalk, crayons, and paper supplies are kept. Easels that fold against the wall when not in use can be made. The usefulness of the arts and crafts center is greatly increased if a workbench is provided. Wood may be stored on a shelf under the bench. Wood-working and leather-working tools may be hung on nails or boards above or beside the workbench, or kept in a homemade tool box. Nails, screws, sandpaper, and small articles may be stored in a drawer in the workbench or in boxes on a shelf placed above it. Tools must be kept clean and in good condition, and the children may need help in learning to use them safely. A heavy earthen crockery jar for storing clay belongs in the art center.²

If older girls attend the school, a sewing machine will make possible many good activities. Curtains for the room may be made, simple costumes can be created when needed, puppets may be dressed, and projects in making and repairing real garments may be undertaken. Secondhand treadle machines can be bought for little. If there are homes in the neighborhood without sewing machines, the mothers may be invited to use the one at school certain

¹Tennessee State Department of Education, *Living and Learning in Small Rural Schools*, p. 27. Reprinted by permission of the Tennessee State Department of Education.

²See the "Rural Arts" issue of *School Arts*, March, 1939. Simple, useful arts and crafts equipment is described.

hours each week. Useful printed instructional bulletins can usually be secured from the home-demonstration agent's office.

Ample bulletin-board and display space is essential to the modern schoolroom. Present teaching methods require less blackboard space than formerly. In a good many rural schools there is more blackboard space than is needed, and not enough bulletin-board space. One or two sections of the blackboard can be transformed into display space by covering them with some composition material soft enough to take thumbtacks. Or these sections may be covered with muslin, burlap, or other inexpensive material in which pins can be used. Bulletin boards should be framed with narrow strips of wood or with regular molding. Like the blackboard, bulletin boards should be low enough for the children to use them easily.

A rug or two will add much to the hominess of a schoolroom, as will an easy chair or two. The room can be made attractive with a vase of flowers or of autumn leaves, interesting book ends, well-arranged displays of art work, and flowering or climbing plants. No room should be "cluttered," but neither should any room be bare and drab. The schoolroom reflects the spirit of school life; and if life there is interesting, active, and varied, the room will be an interesting, busy, happy-looking place.

Efficient Management of Routine School Housekeeping Tasks

The modern school is a place where active learning goes on from day to day. Children share in planning activities, engage in many different types of experiences as they develop, and share honestly in evaluating work done. In such a school there is probably more need for "housekeeping" than in the more passive, study-recite school of a past generation. At the same time, there is more genuine feeling of group responsibility and of willingness to share in the work involved in school life.

In many rural schools the teacher and the children together handle housekeeping routines through a school service club. Some rural schools, of course, provide for janitorial service. This is much to be desired, but even where it is provided there are still a good many daily housekeeping tasks for the teacher and the children.

Children in rural schools are usually not only willing but eager to help with the necessary work. If the school is small, it may not be necessary to develop any formal type of organization for these routine tasks; but many rural teachers have found it helpful to systematize the work through development of a school service club. Such a club provides worth-while experiences for the children in group planning, in evaluating how well plans are carried out, and in sharing responsibility for group welfare. The club must be based on honest and sincere acceptance by the children of the responsibilities it involves. Otherwise, it should not exist.

The suggestion that such a club be organized may properly come from the teacher. It may be well to wait until school has been in session for some time, when the teacher will have become acquainted with the children and a good group spirit will have begun to grow. No exact pattern can be suggested for organization of the club, since it must develop as the project of the particular school group. Some general suggestions can be offered, however.

Definite club organization is necessary. The club can be given a name. Officers may be chosen, with various titles—president, vice-president, secretary, and treasurer or a secretary-treasurer; or perhaps more simply a general manager or chairman, with a secretary to keep records. Sometimes such clubs undertake projects calling for the expenditure of money, such as purchasing materials for curtains or buying paint or a library table lamp. In case this is done, a treasurer is needed. A simple constitution, setting up general rules for handling the work for which the club accepts responsibility and stating its general purpose, may be developed and approved, though many small schools do not find this step necessary.

No matter how informal or formal the organization pattern decided upon may be, one of the earliest steps is a clear-cut listing of the duties or responsibilities the club is to handle. The list can well grow out of a group discussion of the work to be done. Accompanying this listing of work routines there must be a group decision on how individual responsibilities are to be assigned. Certain house-keeping chores are appropriate for younger children, others only for older ones. Safety factors must be reviewed. All these points can be brought out in the discussion, and decisions can be made as to who is to assign the work routines, how long the person assigned

any task is to do it, and just what is involved in doing the task well. The exact list of duties will vary with different schools, but some such listing of housekeeping routines as the following may grow out of the discussion:

Sweep the room	Clean blackboards and erasers
Dust the room	Raise and lower windows and blinds
Inspect desks	Keep playground neat
Care for stove	Raise and lower the flag
Care for plants	Check and clean boys' toilet
Empty wastebaskets	Check and clean girls' toilet
Care for play equipment and materials	

The lunch hour will involve a number of duties, particularly if a hot lunch is prepared and served at school. It will be necessary, too, to have a definite understanding of just what each responsibility means.

The teacher must not forget her responsibilities as the adult guide in the group project. She must remember that the children need help and guidance in developing both proper attitudes and efficient work habits, and that these are learned gradually through experience. Some children, of course, will need more guidance than others. It may be necessary to make "job cards," listing specifically the work involved in certain of the housekeeping routines, and to post these or distribute them to each new helper who is assigned the job. It often helps a child get started if the teacher works with him a day or two when he begins a new task, visiting in a friendly way as she goes through the work with him. It is important that at all times she set a good example of cheerful and co-operative participation in the work.

Careful attention must be given at all times to safety factors. Dust cloths are best kept in covered metal containers; fire-building and fire-tending must be handled in safe ways; scalding water used to rinse lunch dishes must be handled carefully and only by children who are able to manage it safely. Tools like the ax must be handled properly and stored safely when not in use. Play equipment needs regular inspection, and prompt repair when it is out of order or broken.

It is to be expected that, even under the best management, some children will fail from time to time to manage their work well and

some will object to doing the work assigned them. Individual teacher-pupil conferences may improve attitudes. Evaluation of work in club meetings will serve to develop group standards. It is often the best policy simply to let matters alone for a few days; then, after tense feelings have worn off, to approach the problem objectively in private conferences or in group discussions. Teacher and group approval and words of honest praise and appreciation will do much to build good attitudes.

Summary

Among the factors controlling the kind of program any school can offer are the school plant and the facilities it provides. School-room arrangement, general attractiveness, and cleanliness do much to determine school morale and directly influence children's attitudes and general behavior. The school plant and its maintenance, then, are matters of real importance.

Unfortunately, far too many of America's rural school plants are obsolete and in serious disrepair. Extensive construction of new buildings is urgently needed. In planning for new school plants, consideration must be given to emerging patterns of district organization, the broad educational needs of all community groups, the need for teachers' living quarters, and the need for special service facilities. Two promising ideas are the development of "park-schools" and the use of mobile facilities units of various types. It seems clear that financial aid for building purposes must come from state and Federal sources. Community pride in the schools, too, seems to need reawakening.

In the meantime, rural teachers must make the best of whatever facilities the schools do provide. Old buildings can be remodeled and redecorated, often by children and teachers and parents working together. Playground equipment can be bought and constructed, and the school grounds can be made attractive. Much can be done to set the stage for modern school life by careful room arrangement and by adapting school furniture to modern school activities.

Although some rural schools provide janitorial services, many do not. In either event, every school has certain important housekeeping

tasks that must be routinized. One way of doing this is through the organization of a school service club. Such a club enlists the participation of all children; but even so the teacher always has the responsibility of providing wise leadership and management.

Questions for Study and Discussion

1. What explanations can be offered for the present dilapidated condition of many rural school buildings and grounds?
2. Why must school plant planning be related to district reorganization plans?
3. What is involved in the "park-school" concept? What functions can you list that might be carried on in a good rural community park?
4. What are the arguments in favor of providing teachers' apartments in rural school buildings?
5. List a number of suggestions for effective room arrangement in a one-teacher school.
6. What are the advantages of the individual table and chair type of seating furniture?
7. List suggestions for improving rural school grounds.
8. What educational values has the school service club?
9. What suggestions can you offer for the guidance and leadership a teacher must give such a club?
10. List the school housekeeping tasks that must be cared for regularly in a rural schoolroom.

Activities

1. Study the building plans shown in Appendix B. Discuss the advantages and the disadvantages of these building plans in terms of the building needs of rural communities you know.
2. Sketch original floor plans for rural school buildings and plans for grounds. Prepare a bulletin-board display of these.
3. Arrange a visit by the entire class to two or three rural schools to survey ways in which these school plants could be redecorated, rearranged, and repaired at little cost. Write a report on the visit.

Bibliography*

- American Country Life Association, Committee on Rural Education, *Still Sits the Schoolhouse by the Road*. Chicago: The Committee, 1943.
- Culp, Vernon H., *How to Manage a Rural School*. Minneapolis, Minn.: The Burgess Publishing Company, 1942.
- Engelhardt, N. L., and Engelhardt, N. L., Jr., *Planning the Community School*. New York: The American Book Company, 1940.
- Interstate School Building Service, *Community School Plans*. Nashville, Tenn.: Interstate School Building Service, 1944.
- National Conference on Facilities for Athletics, Recreation, Health and Physical Education, *A Guide for Planning Facilities for Athletics, Recreation, Physical and Health Education*. Chicago: The Athletic Institute, 1947.
- National Council on Schoolhouse Construction, *Proceedings of the Twenty-third Annual Meeting, Part II: Guide for Planning School Plants* (Tentative). Nashville, Tenn.: State Department of Education, 1946.
- National Education Association of the United States, Department of Rural Education, *Rural Schools for Tomorrow: 1945 Yearbook*, edited by Julian E. Butterworks. Washington, D.C.: The Association, 1945.
- Olson, Clara M., *A Community School of Social Action*. Gainesville, Florida: Florida Curriculum Laboratory, University of Florida, 1944.
- Tennessee State Department of Education, *Living and Learning in Small Rural Schools*. Nashville, Tenn.: State Department of Education, 1943.
- University of the State of New York, *Designing the Central School Plant as a Community Center*. Albany, New York: State Education Department, 1945.
- Weber, Julia, *My Country School Diary*. New York: Harper and Brothers, 1946.
- White House Conference on Rural Education, 1944, *Proceedings*. Washington, D.C.: National Education Association of the United States, 1945.
- W. K. Kellogg Foundation, *Schools Awake*. Battle Creek, Mich.: The Foundation, 1942.
- Wofford, Kate V., *Modern Education in the Small Rural School*. New York: The Macmillan Company, 1938.

Part Three

THE CHANGING RURAL COMMUNITY AND THE FUTURE OF THE RURAL SCHOOL

In Part Three attention is focused specifically on the rural community as the setting of the school program.

Rural communities are changing. The strength of old-time neighborhood ties is weakening. It is to be hoped that in the newly emerging patterns of rural social organization, the traditional values of rural life will be preserved and new values will be gained. The schools have a part to play in the social processes involved, and in turn they are affected by the changes taking place.

In Chapter XI the changing pattern of rural community life is reviewed, and the question of what the role of the school should be in community life is discussed. In Chapter XII ways of strengthening school and community relationships are presented. The future of the rural schools is the theme of Chapter XIII, the closing chapter of the book.

THE CHANGING RURAL COMMUNITY

RURAL LIFE HAS CHANGED much since pioneer times. The process of social change continues today, and it has many implications for rural education. This chapter, in discussing the topic, considers (1) the importance of the small community in its influence on rural children and in national society; (2) the changes which have taken place and are in process in rural community life; and (3) the question of what role the rural school should play in the community.

Importance of the Small Community

As has been pointed out, more than 40 per cent of the American people live in population centers of fewer than 2,500 persons. Furthermore, it has been shown that birth rates are highest for the rural-farm population, next highest for the rural non-farm population, and lowest in cities. Americans will continue, for years at least, to be a people of rural origins. The quality of living which small communities afford is clearly a matter of wide importance.

For rural people themselves the community is significant because it is through *community life* that many of their common purposes are realized. It is in community life that the people become aware of local group needs, and it is by community action that they move to satisfy them. The needs may be for fire protection, for better roads, for health services, for strengthened religious programs, for library facilities, for richer opportunities to share in social activities. What-

ever the need, the people act as a community in developing group recognition of the problem and in moving to solve it. They may act independently as a local group or in co-operation with agencies of the county, state, and national government, and even with non-governmental agencies outside the community. But they act, if they do so effectively, as a community. The effectiveness of community organization largely determines the success of projects undertaken. Some small communities, of course, are more effectively organized and more united than are others.

It is particularly important for teachers to understand the significance of the community in the lives of the children. This significance rests on the twin facts that living is a social process and that living and learning are intimately related. The meaning of these ideas may be made clearer by pointing to the obvious fact that the six-year-old child has learned much before he ever enters school. Indeed, the learning which has taken place before he goes to school may exceed in importance the learning which takes place afterward. It is equally true that much of the learning which shapes the personality of the growing child throughout his school years will be acquired quite apart from his school life. The learning which goes on in school varies for different individuals and for children in different schools, and school learning is for everyone only a part of the total learning that begins at birth and continues throughout life.

This out-of-school learning of course involves not only what is commonly called knowledge but also the development of basic traits, attitudes, and ways of behaving which become integral parts of the child's growing personality. It is learning which takes place as the child lives with others.

In early infancy the child is dependent entirely on others for satisfaction of both his personality and his physical needs. The home has the primary responsibility for satisfying those needs, but community influences are important at a very early age. The community may be one in which there are agencies actively engaged in promoting child health, even perhaps including prenatal guidance for mothers. It may offer opportunities for parent education. It may provide child-guidance services. It may have children's playgrounds with appropriate types of equipment and skilled leaders. It may have a library, with "story hours" for preschool children. On the

other hand, it may provide only a few such opportunities or none of them. Thus the community influences the child's growth and learning during his early years.

As the child grows, he is influenced in increasing measure by informal associations and experiences outside and interrelated with his home and his family. He learns language, which is itself a form of social activity. He plays with his brothers and sisters and with other children. He comes gradually to know the life of the farm and of the small town in which he lives. In these everyday social experiences his personality develops. As he grows older his community becomes an ever-widening one, and the range of influences on his living and learning correspondingly expands.

The school is but one of these influences. Recognition of this essential truth will sharpen the teacher's understanding of school and community relations, as well as emphasize the importance of the community itself as a means of social control. It is largely through family life and community life (of which the school is but a part), as the two primary social units, that values and attitudes are preserved and are transmitted from generation to generation. Similarly, it is through social experiences that new values and attitudes are developed as new social conditions require them. In this way, too, old values and attitudes are modified. These changing ways of group living have direct meaning for people only as they are experienced in the primary social units.

The small community is a much stronger force for social control than is the large urban population center. Many observers of city life point out that it fails to give individuals a sense of belonging to any identifiable community group. City people live closely crowded together, but the forms of living are such that group patterns of behavior and group values are not well defined. Too, city life has seemed to some observers to breed animosities and disregard for the feelings and well-being of others. In the small community, on the other hand, people know one another and know and understand the purposes of the various organized groups. The whole social structure is simpler and more easily defined. There is true community of feeling. Certain types of behavior in human relationships are approved, and others are disapproved. Children growing up in the small community learn these approved and disapproved ways of

living in much the same natural way they learn to talk. They develop the important sense of belonging to a group. Under favorable conditions, they also develop feelings of responsibility to the community and to the common welfare of its people. This situation has prompted many observers of American life to emphasize the importance of preserving and improving small communities, and to view with some alarm the growing concentration of people in cities. Arthur E. Morgan has said:

For the preservation and transmission of the fundamentals of civilization, vigorous, wholesome community life is imperative. Unless many people live and work in the intimate relationships of community life, there never can emerge a truly unified nation, or a community of mankind. If I do not love my neighbor whom I know, how can I love the human race, which is but an abstraction? If I have not learned to work with a few people, how can I be effective with many?¹

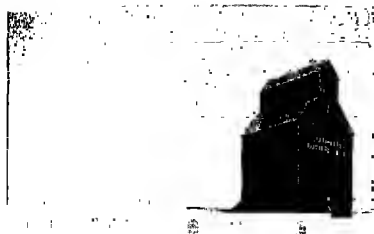
The local community is still a strong factor in rural America. It is important that the teacher recognize its importance for the people who live there, particularly the children, and its significance as a stabilizing social unit in the national society. Such recognition will strengthen the teacher's understanding of how important it is that the home, the school, and all community living support and reinforce one another and all contribute to building satisfying and useful living for children and adults alike.

The Rural Community a Changing Social Unit

It was shown in Chapter II that rural society has changed with the impact on agriculture of the Industrial Revolution. Significant changes are still in process. Naturally, the forms of social organization in rural society have been affected.

In early days the neighborhood was the primary social unit. In most parts of the old world, the historical pattern of social organization in rural areas centered about villages. Only in America did

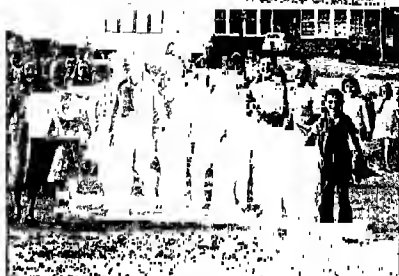
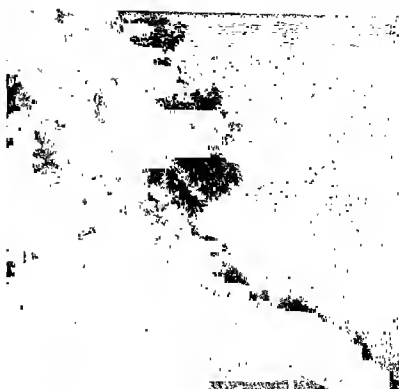
¹Arthur E. Morgan, *The Small Community*, p. 19. Used by permission of Harper and Brothers, publishers.



J. C. Allen and Son
Farmers' Co-operative Grain Elevators
at Ayr, Montana



J. C. Allen and Son
A Community Meeting in an Indiana
Consolidated School



Eva Luoma
Good Friends at a Modern Rural School
in North Carolina



J. C. Allen and Son
The Sheffield Township School near Dayton, Ohio, with the Busses That Carry
Many of the Pupils to and from Their Farm Homes



The Alfred-Almond Central Rural School in Allegheny County, New York



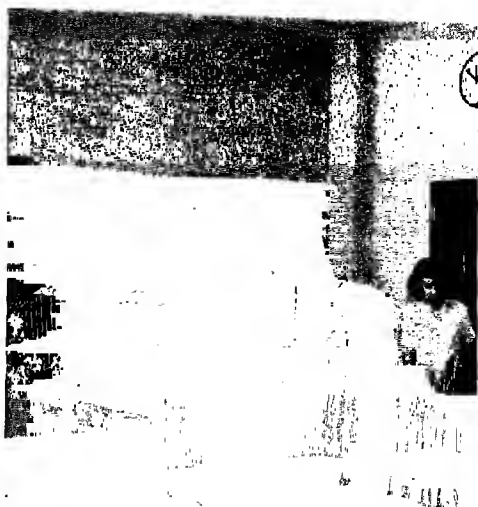
Wide World
Some Children Need Special Clinical Services



Courtesy of Bell and Howell Co.
New Ways of Teaching Add to the Learning



Henry De Wolf, Rochester, N. Y.



*Courtesy of Mineral Springs Public Schools,
Winston-Salem, N. C.*

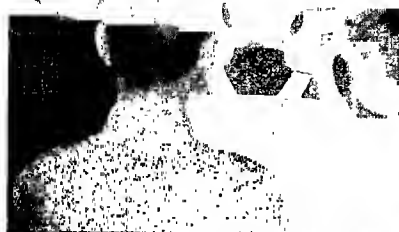
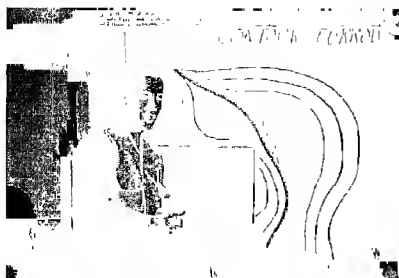
All Work Together at School Chores



Soil Conservation Service
High School Boys Study Soil Con-
servation in the Field



J. C. Allen and Son
An Indiana 4-H Leadership Class on
a Field Trip



Soil Conservation Service
Learning about Soil-saving Practices Has
Meaning for These South Dakota 4-H
Club Boys



J. C. Allen and Son
Fathers and Sons Share in Livestock
Judging



J. C. Allen and Son
Group Singing at an Indiana 4-H Club
Camp



*Courtesy of Mineral Springs Public Schools,
Winston-Salem, N. C.*
A North Carolina Library Serves
Schools by Bookmobile



Soil Conservation Service
Children's Posters Tell How to Save
the Soil

living on separate and, frequently, isolated farms develop as the pattern. In this important respect rural society in America has differed from that in most nations, and this in large part explains the importance of the *rural neighborhood*. In pioneer times, indeed until the automobile and modern roads of recent years, the neighborhood was the strong social unit. Neighborhood boundaries were determined in some cases by geographical features, such as rivers and mountains. Frequently large family groups made up neighborhoods. The open-country church, the one-room school, the local mill, the general store, and the crossroads post office provided most of the services and facilities essential to neighborhood living. Informal visiting and group gatherings on such occasions as quilting parties, husking bees, neighborhood picnics, and the like met the social needs of the people.

Today the rural community is emerging as a larger, village-centered social unit. Cars, trucks, and modern farm machinery have profoundly changed the pattern of rural life. Farming is commercialized. The isolation of individual farms and of local neighborhoods has been greatly reduced. As a result, farm people have become more dependent on the village or the town for needed services and are more closely tied by common interests to people farther removed from their homes. The rural neighborhood has declined in importance as a social unit. Instead of providing many of the necessary services, it now typically provides only one or two of them. The one-room school may remain, and some open-country neighborhood churches do persist, but their number is decreasing. It is to the larger village or town that farm people now go for an increasing number of specialized services which the small hamlet or open-country neighborhood cannot supply. In the larger village there are specialized retail stores—the five-and-dime stores, ready-to-wear clothing stores, chain grocery stores, drugstores. It is there that farm families find the dentist and the physician, the bank and the library. They may send their children to a consolidated school in the village. Almost certainly the high school is located there. They go to the village to attend the movies, or for other recreation. There they market much of their farm produce or start it on its way to more distant markets. There they find the county agent's office and the offices of the public health unit and the soil conservation agency. It

is in the village that farm people do much of their visiting and join in the activities of groups of people with interests like their own.

In short, the village-centered community made up of the village and the surrounding countryside is emerging as the new social unit. It is gaining in importance as local neighborhoods lose. It is making farm people and village people and town people more closely interdependent. It has more ties with the larger national and world society than did the older neighborhood.

The clearly defined new village-centered rural community has emerged since about the time of World War I. Its process of development is not yet completed. It is clear that complete integration has not been achieved in many of the changing communities. Too often the village people control and direct institutions which are as necessary to the farm people of the community as to themselves and are as largely supported by them. The library may professedly serve the whole community or even the county, but rarely are there farm men or farm women on its board of directors. The village church may have displaced the open-country churches, yet it is directed largely by the village people. One of the leaders in rural church work, Dr. Thomas Alfred Tripp, has pointed out that the work of rural village churches too often ends "where the sidewalks stop." There are village high schools which require the surrounding districts to pay tuition for the boys and girls they send to them. Even where the administrative units have been reorganized to include formerly independent country districts, the control of the school frequently is not shared in by the farm people. There is still some feeling of division between the village people and the farm people.

These maladjustments have been recognized by many community leaders and are in the process of being overcome. It seems safe to predict that within a decade or two the larger, village-centered rural community will be more clearly defined and more closely integrated than it is today. Some writers have expressed regret over the decline of the smaller rural neighborhoods, with their more intimate human relationships. Yet change is inevitable. True, this change involves the loss of some of the old values of small neighborhood life, but it also brings the promise of a better community life. The isolation of the old-time rural neighborhood did make for social solidarity and effective social control, and these have been weakened.

But this solidarity also made for narrowness of viewpoint, and it prevented close association with the outside world. With intelligent leadership, the emerging rural community can preserve many of the desirable values of the old and combine with them the values of larger community life. These values include the possibility of greatly increased services and facilities, especially for public education. There can be greater and more rewarding cultural exchanges with the outside society. For persons concerned with the quality of rural life, the problem is not one of preventing or lamenting the change but of providing intelligent leadership in the process of the social change.

There are many functions the new community can perform better than any other rural social unit. The development of community organization for the exercise of those functions is to be encouraged. There are other functions which can be exercised only in part by the community and which require co-operation with other groups or with governmental units. For such functions, the development of effective working relationships between the community and the larger society presents a challenge to leadership. It is important that insofar as possible local community control, leadership, and initiative be preserved. Readjustments in social and governmental institutions are needed, and they can be effected in ways that will preserve the significant values of the older pattern and yet capitalize on the possibilities of the new. The extension of Federal financial aid to rural education, with preservation of local control and leadership, is but one example. In the task of effecting a wise transition from old to new patterns, rural leadership has its greatest challenge. This challenge is one which involves the rural schools.

The Role of the School in the Community

It should be said frankly in beginning any discussion of the place of the school in community life that a wide range of opinion exists both among educators and among the public at large. Furthermore, such a discussion must not evade the realities of rural school problems and by so doing deal with programs which from any practical viewpoint are unrealizable. Yet the question is an important one,

and it is a question through which rural teachers need to think clearly.

People hold different viewpoints on the question. What do most people believe to be the purposes of education? There are parents and teachers who think the school's responsibility is to teach factual knowledge and the skills essential to the learning of it. Recognizing no further purposes of schooling, they naturally think of education as something that goes on only in schoolrooms and usually, if not always, as a process of learning from books. They see no necessity or opportunity for relating what goes on in the schoolroom to what goes on outside it and around it. Their concept of the curriculum is one of the study and recitation of lessons. They evaluate the school in terms of pupil performance on skill and subject-matter tests and examinations. They see no need for the teacher to assume the responsibilities of community citizenship: her work is thought to be limited to the school, and her job is to follow the course of study. The people of the community do not look upon the teacher as one of them but as a transient worker. Apart from expecting her to conform to community standards of personal conduct, they have little concern with her activities.

This viewpoint rests, obviously, on a narrow concept of what education should do, and it reflects an equally narrow understanding of the educational process. Yet it is widely prevalent in rural communities. It is a viewpoint strongly entrenched in the way the people think about the school because it represents the traditional type of school program. The handicaps under which many rural schools operate tend to perpetuate the viewpoint. Small, isolated, inadequately financed, poorly housed schools taught by poorly educated teachers who stay but a year or two in the community provide a natural and favorable setting for that kind of school.

The weaknesses and inadequacies of this viewpoint of the role of the school are not difficult to identify. A statement by the Committee on Rural Education of The Southern Rural Life Conference indicates what they are:

The agency that should have made and should continue to make the most significant contribution to the general improvement of rural life—the rural school—is the agency that seemingly understands least the changing pattern of country life, and apparently has made the

least effort to adapt its program to present-day conditions and needs of rural people. Except in a few notable instances, the schools have not made maximum use of opportunities to help improve actual life conditions. If education in rural areas is to accept this challenge and be instrumental in raising the cultural and economic standards of country life, it must be greatly improved. Efforts should be made to develop plans and formulate programs designed to help people to help themselves.¹

The weaknesses of a rural education program devoted only to the teaching of the traditional knowledge and skills, in isolation from and unrelated to the life in rural communities, may be summarized as fourfold.

(1) Even what is taught in such schools is but poorly learned, because effective learning takes place only when children understand what they are learning and see purpose and meaning in it.

Real learning comes with experience. Unless what is to be learned grows out of and is related to the experiences of the children, it is in grave danger of being regarded as but temporary and decorative.

(2) Such education is devoted too largely to teaching material that is non-functional, with no application in daily living.

The needs of rural society and of the world today are such that society cannot safely maintain schools that ignore these needs. In fact, it seems probable that the traditional loyalty of the people to public education will be weakened unless schools in all communities genuinely merit it.

(3) Such education ignores the facts that children learn much outside the classroom and that classroom learning may be less influential than is commonly supposed in determining what kind of persons children become as they grow to adulthood.

There is need for a co-ordination of in-school and out-of-school learning so that both are reinforced and made more effective. After all, in-school and out-of-school experiences are but divisions of the one life of the child.

(4) The final and fundamental weakness of this limited viewpoint is its failure to recognize the broad purposes of education.

¹From *The School and the Changing Pattern of Country Life*, Report of The Southern Rural Life Conference, 1943, sponsored by George Peabody College for Teachers, Vanderbilt University, Scarritt College, and Fisk University, Nashville, Tennessee.

These purposes include much more than the teaching of abstract knowledge and the acquiring of literacy skills. The purposes of education today are as broad and inclusive as the democratic way of life.

So much for the viewpoint that schools need not necessarily relate to community life. In sharp contrast with this viewpoint is the one held by many rural leaders, that the rural school should be the center of significant community activities, that rural teachers should be among the leaders of the community, and that schoolroom activities should reflect the life of the community.

This viewpoint has been implied in the critical examination of the preceding one. It involves the belief that schools are to contribute to the improvement of rural society and, through it, of the larger national and world society. It does not suggest that the teaching of basic knowledge and skills be abandoned. It does suggest that these are best taught purposefully and meaningfully, that many areas of knowledge and many kinds of skill now ignored in traditional schools are important, and that the schools must be concerned with more than knowledge and skills. It assigns to rural schools the role of agencies of community improvement, and it commits them to many responsibilities, in addition to actual classroom instruction. It views the school as one of many co-operating agencies concerned with preserving and transmitting what is good and valid in rural culture and building progressively for its improvement. The following statement well expresses this philosophy:

An important step in the improvement of the community is the development and acceptance of the idea that one of the basic purposes of the rural school is to assist the people of the community to utilize the school itself for the improvement of their general living conditions. The acceptance of this idea makes necessary an educational program for out-of-school youth and adults in connection with the regular school program. This involves co-operative activities carried on by lay leaders, children, and teachers with the general aim of making the community a healthy, wholesome, and satisfactory place in which to live. Of course, the school cannot do this job alone, but it is the logical agency through which some of the efforts of other agencies working toward the same goal may be co-ordinated.

The revitalized rural school program should cease to be patterned

after urban programs. It should possess its own distinctive features. A major part of its materials and activities should be drawn out of the school environment, and efforts should be directed toward the improvement of living within the rural community.¹

A whole range of opinion and practice lies between the two viewpoints set forth above—that the school may discharge its proper responsibilities in isolation from the life of the community and that the school can discharge its responsibilities only as it becomes an effective agency for community improvement. The trend in educational philosophy is clearly toward wider acceptance of the latter viewpoint. The direction of change in rural educational theory and practice today is toward the development of *rural community schools*.

The realities of the present situation must be recognized. It is necessary to recognize that what schools can do is limited by the conditions. Little good can come from urging teachers to do the impossible. But neither can much good come from approving an attitude of resignation to circumstance.

The teacher who really accepts the philosophy of the community school may quite naturally be disturbed by the limitations of her teaching situation which frustrate her hopes. It must be recognized that only as rural education is reorganized and strengthened can schools develop full programs of community education. What it is possible for the one-room school to do may be a quite different matter. Yet even the individual teacher in the country school can do much to relate her teaching to community life and needs, and to bridge the gap that too often exists between the children's in-school and out-of-school experiences. The next chapter suggests how she may do so. The point to be made here can be stated as a general principle:

The rural teacher should do all she can, within the limitations imposed by the situation in which she works, to make her school an effective agency for strengthening community life.

¹From *The School and the Changing Pattern of Country Life*, Report of The Southern Rural Life Conference, 1943, sponsored by George Peabody College for Teachers, Vanderbilt University, Scarritt College, and Fisk University. Nashville, Tennessee.

Summary

The small community continues to be a significant social unit in American society. The degree to which life within it is healthy, socially desirable, and humanly satisfying is a consideration of wide importance.

Due to modern means of communication and travel, the small rural neighborhoods have lost many of their functions to the more distant village or town. Because of that change, the village-centered community, inclusive of the village and surrounding countryside, is emerging as the strong social unit in rural society. The change requires adaptations in community organization and in existing institutions, and the development of new ones.

Rural leadership has its greatest challenge today in preserving the desirable features of traditional rural life and enriching them by developing fully the possibilities of the larger community and its many links with the larger society.

Opinions vary as to the role the school should play in community life, ranging from the viewpoint that the school may properly carry on its traditional work in isolation from the life around it to the viewpoint that the school should be one of the most effective agencies of community improvement. The trend is toward developing closer and more functional school and community interrelationships, but the limitations of existing school organizational patterns hamper such development. Even so, there are many ways in which the country teacher can relate the school program to community life.

Questions for Study and Discussion

1. How does community life serve as a form of social control?
2. Why is the small community stronger as a force for social control than is the larger urban community?
3. What forces have tended to reduce the significance of rural neighborhoods?
4. What are the functions of the village in the emerging village-centered rural community?

5. What evidence is there that the newly developing village-centered rural communities are not yet fully integrated?
6. In what ways does the community influence the learning of the child?
7. On what grounds does modern educational philosophy endorse the concept of the community school?
8. What are the weaknesses of any educational program that is carried on in isolation from community life?
9. The school is said to be the logical agency for co-ordinating the efforts of other agencies working toward better community life. Why?
10. What changes in rural school organization and administration would facilitate development of schools able to serve more effectively as agencies strengthening community life?

Activities

1. The bibliography for this chapter lists some good case studies of rural communities. Arrange to read these and to spend a class period or two discussing these reports of changing rural communities.
2. Two excellent documentary films which report some of the work of the Sloan Foundation project in Kentucky mountain schools are *And So They Live* and *The Children Must Learn*. Appoint a committee to arrange to have these shown to the class. Invite other groups to share in the discussion of them.

Bibliography

- Bowen, Genevieve, *Living and Learning in a Rural School*. New York: The Macmillan Company, 1944.
- Collings, Ellsworth, *An Experiment with a Project Curriculum*. New York: The Macmillan Company, 1923.
- Fox, Lorene K., *The Rural Community and Its School*. New York: King's Crown Press, 1948.
- Hicks, Granville, *Small Town*. New York: The Macmillan Company, 1946.

- Kolb, J. H., and Brunner, Edmund de S., *A Study of Rural Society*. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Company, 1946.
- Lindstrom, David E., *American Farmers' and Rural Organizations*. Champaign, Ill.: The Garrard Press, 1948.
- Morgan, Arthur E., *The Small Community*. New York: Harper and Brothers, 1942.
- Olsen, Edward G., and Others, *School and Community*. New York: Prentice-Hall, 1945.
- Olson, Clara M., *A Community School of Social Action*. Gainesville, Florida: Florida Curriculum Laboratory, University of Florida, 1944.
- Sanderson, Dwight, and Polson, Robert A., *Rural Community Organization*. New York: John Wiley and Sons, 1939.
- The School and the Changing Pattern of Country Life*, Report of The Southern Rural Life Conference, 1943, sponsored by George Peabody College for Teachers, Vanderbilt University, Scarritt College, and Fisk University. Nashville, Tenn.
- Society for Curriculum Study, Committee on the Community School, *The Community School*, edited by Samuel Everett. New York: D. Appleton-Century Company, 1938.
- United States Department of Agriculture, Bureau of Agricultural Economics, *Rural Life Series*. Washington, D.C.: The Department.
- Bell, Earl H., *Culture of a Contemporary Rural Community—Sublette, Kansas*. 1942.
- Kollmorgen, Walter M., *Culture of a Contemporary Rural Community—The Old Order Amish of Lancaster County, Pennsylvania*. 1942.
- MacLeish, Kenneth, and Young, Kimball, *Culture of a Contemporary Rural Community—Landaff, New Hampshire*. 1942.
- Moe, Edward O., and Taylor, Carl G., *Culture of a Contemporary Rural Community—Irwin, Iowa*. 1942.
- Olen, Leonard, and Loomis, C. P., *Culture of a Contemporary Rural Community—El Cerrito, New Mexico*. 1942.
- Wynne, Waller, *Culture of a Contemporary Rural Community—Harmony, Georgia*. 1943.
- West, James (pseud. of Carl Withers), *Plainville, U. S. A.* New York: Columbia University Press, 1945.
- Works, George A., and Lesser, Simon O., *Rural America Today: Its Schools and Community Life*. Chicago: The University of Chicago Press, 1942.

STRENGTHENING SCHOOL AND COMMUNITY RELATIONSHIPS

IT IS CLEAR that no modern school can live in isolation from the community around it. This chapter deals with ways of building mutually helpful school and community relationships. As a first step, it indicates the need for the teacher to study the community and suggests a guide to community study. The discussion then turns to ways in which the teacher may proceed to strengthen school and community ties.

Studying the Community for Insight into Its Strengths and Needs

Before the rural teacher can do much to relate school and community life, she must know the community. She must be aware of its strengths and its needs. To guide child growth, she needs to know something of the lives her children lead outside the school. To make effective use of community resources, she must know what those resources are. Her effectiveness as a participating member in the community will be conditioned by the depth of her understanding of the people and their problems. Her adjustment to the community in terms of her personal relationships and activities while living there will be one of the important factors determining her success as a teacher.

Obviously, the teacher needs to know the community her school serves. A study and analysis of the community is a rewarding

activity, and it can be an interesting one. The following guide provides an inclusive and systematic pattern. It has been designed for the changing rural community. It is comprehensive, and may include items not pertinent to the study of some communities. There is some overlapping of items under the different headings. Before attempting to apply it in any actual study, the teacher should check it carefully and omit, change, or add items as seems appropriate to the particular community.

Whenever possible, the answers to the questions should be based on facts. Objectivity is to be desired, yet the teacher need not hesitate to draw conclusions and make interpretations when that seems justified. In many cases the best sources for material are the publications and records of state and local government units, local libraries, and interviews with local people, especially the old-timers. Local, county, and state libraries may be consulted. County health officers, local and county social welfare workers, and other officials will be able to supply information in their fields. State departments of education and county school officials will have data about school districts and pupil attendance. Such standard sources as the following are helpful: the reports of the United States Bureau of the Census, particularly the *Statistical Abstract of the United States*; the *United States Governmental Manual*; the *World Almanac*; and publications of government agencies such as the Children's Bureau and the United States Public Health Service.

Finally, it must be said that knowing a community means much more than having a collection of facts and figures about it. Much that is of primary importance can be learned only through firsthand observation and study extending over a period of time. Living and working in the rural community is the best way of coming to know it. As a matter of fact, a beginning teacher may well feel it wise to postpone any systematic search for information until she has become acquainted, rather than to launch at once on an intensive community study. Her usefulness will be limited if her zeal generates resentment.

The study of the rural community, then, cannot follow any set procedure. The following guide merely provides an organized list of questions. In discovering the answers to these questions, the teacher must use her common sense and proceed with tact and sincerity.

A SUGGESTED GUIDE FOR RURAL COMMUNITY STUDY

I. HISTORY OF THE COMMUNITY

History is important as it contributes to understanding of the present. The important question here is, how did the community come to be what it is? Extreme concern for detail is not necessary in the answers.

When was the community settled? By what people? What ambitions and hopes brought them to the new settlement? Is the present population largely descended from early families? What new groups have come? When? What brought them? Has the community passed through periods of critical change due to drought, floods, the building or abandoning of a railroad or a highway, or other causes?

What new industries have developed, and how have they changed the community? What individuals and groups have been particularly influential? Who has provided leadership? Has the community progressively become a better place in which to live?

What historical material is there which the school may use to advantage? Are there landmarks? Local legends? Old guns, costumes, furniture, old-time farm and household equipment? Indian relics? What resources has the community for the study of natural history? Are there fossils, petrified wood, unusual earth and rock formations, glacial deposits, etc.? What people in the community are interested in local history and in natural history?

II. GEOGRAPHICAL SETTING AND NATURAL RESOURCES OF THE COMMUNITY

What is the altitude? The latitude? What is the length of the growing season? What is the annual precipitation? Its seasonal distribution? What winds prevail? Is there danger of hurricanes or cyclones? How cold may it become in winter? Are blizzards frequent? Is the community situated so accessibility to and from it is easy or difficult? What influences has the water supply on the lives of the people? Is soil drainage a problem? What types of soil are found? How fertile is the soil? To what extent has it been depleted by erosion? What types of native vegetation are there? What are the timber and mineral resources? What are the sources of power? What animals are native to the region? Are there natural recreational areas for parks, fishing, hunting, and winter sports?

III. THE PEOPLE OF THE COMMUNITY

What are the United States Census figures for the population of the county and the town or village? How have those figures changed in

the last three or four census reports? What social and nationality groups are represented, and in what proportions? How many are foreign-born? How many are but one generation removed from the old country? What languages are spoken in the homes? Is the age-group distribution significant in any way—that is, is there an unusually high proportion of old people or of young adults? What kinship groups are important in the community?

Is there sharp distinction in the occupations of groups? What evidence is there of class distinctions? On what basis? In what ways are these class divisions evident in community life? How do such distinctions affect the children? Is the work of the community such that migratory workers come and go? Do they bring families? Does excessive mobility of population present problems for community and school life? How many young people leave the community after graduation from high school? Why do they leave? Where do they go, and what work do they enter? What is the educational status of the people of the community?

IV. THE ECONOMIC SITUATION IN THE COMMUNITY

By what occupations do the people make their livings? How dependent is the community on any single industry? Are there farm people who work part-time at other occupations? What crops are produced? What livestock is raised? What products are marketed? Where are they processed? Is farming diversified? How largely do farm families produce food for their own needs? Are there farmer co-operatives for marketing produce, for buying items essential to farm operation, or for processing farm products?

How extensive is farm tenancy? Who are the owners, and where do they live? What wages do agricultural laborers receive? About what is the annual income of farm families—owners, tenants, sharecroppers, laborers? Is there wide disparity in the wealth of different families? What retail stores are there in the community? How influential are each of the different economic groups in community life? Where is the banking center? What tax resources are drawn upon for support of local government? How high are property taxes in the community?

V. HOUSING IN THE COMMUNITY

Are the homes in good repair? Which ones need major repair? How many of the people own their homes? How many have running water? Electric lights? Refrigerating equipment? How are the homes heated? How many have bathrooms? Do those without plumbing have sanitary privies? Are the houses well-kept and attractive as well as comfortable?

Are they well landscaped? What kind of housing is provided for migratory workers and their families? How do the homes of tenant farmers compare with those of farm owners? Does the community have any slum areas? If so, who lives there? Why does the problem exist? What new housing construction is under way? How do people finance new homes?

VI. PROVISION FOR HEALTH AND SAFETY IN THE COMMUNITY

How many physicians are there? What is the ratio of physicians to the population of the county? How many dentists are there? Is there a hospital? How is it supported and controlled? How well equipped is it? Is there a public health officer? How many public health nurses work in the community? Is the community or county organized as a public health unit? What non-governmental health organizations are active, such as the Red Cross, the Tuberculosis Association, etc.? Are clinics available to those needing such services? Is group health or hospital insurance available to the people? Is ambulance service provided?

What are the statistics for the county on infant and maternal mortality? What are the figures for incidence and death rates of such diseases as malaria, tuberculosis, pellagra, diphtheria, and pneumonia? Do these data vary for minority groups? What percentage of the children have been given immunization for smallpox and diphtheria? Is malnourishment widespread? How many children have heart trouble? In what ways do public health agencies and the school health program supplement and reinforce one another?

What safeguards of health through milk inspection, regulation of food handlers, protection of water supply, and the like are provided? Are there occupational hazards in the work the people do? What provision is there for fire prevention and control? What traffic hazards are there in the community, particularly near the school?

What provisions are made for care of the crippled, the blind, the deaf, and those who have only partial hearing or vision? For the mentally ill? To what officials can such cases be referred for help?

VII. ORGANIZED GROUPS IN THE COMMUNITY

List the organized groups now active in the community. Which are entirely local? Which have links with statewide, regional, or national groups? What are the purposes of the organizations? How great is outside control over policies and programs of local groups linked to larger organizations? Who are the leaders of the groups? Which organizations contribute significantly to the continuous improvement of community life? Are there organizations for children and youth, as 4-H

Clubs, Scouts, church groups? Are there groups in the community which have no share in organizations? How is their non-participation to be explained? If community organizations have taken positive stands on important contemporary national and world problems, particularly as they relate to agriculture and education, what are the positions so taken? Why?

What church groups are active? Do they work co-operatively or is inter-church competition evident? What programs for children and youth do they sponsor?

Is there a Parent-Teacher Association? What is the history of this activity in the community?

VIII. EDUCATIONAL OPPORTUNITIES IN THE COMMUNITY

How many schools are there in the community? How many school administrative units? How many children of school age are in each? What is the assessed valuation of each unit? Have schools been consolidated, or centralized? Would further consolidation be practicable and advantageous? Why or why not? Where is the high school? What proportion of farm youth go to high school? Are compulsory attendance laws enforced? Do children from minority groups attend segregated schools? If so, how do those schools compare with others in the community? What proportion of children from minority groups go to high school? What courses are offered in the high school? What proportion of high school graduates go on to college?

Is Agricultural Extension Service work organized in the community, for adult education? What is the nature of its program? Are there groups it does not reach? What other agencies or groups are engaged in adult education? What age groups have almost no opportunities for educational experiences?

Is there a library in the community? Who uses it? What are its resources? Does it have books and periodicals for children? Does it have books and periodicals for adults on a wide range of subjects? How is it supported?

How many homes have radios? What newspapers and magazines are there in the homes from which the children come?

IX. OPPORTUNITIES FOR RECREATION IN THE COMMUNITY

What commercial recreational opportunities are there, as motion-picture theaters, skating rinks, bowling alleys, pool halls, dance halls, and road houses? What age groups patronize them? Are some of them socially undesirable, and if so, in what ways? How are they regulated? Are there minority groups to whom such recreation is unavailable?

What non-commercial recreational opportunities are provided in the community, such as skating rinks, swimming pools, parks, playgrounds, school recreational programs, special-interest clubs, musical organizations, and community dances? Are the needs of all age groups and of minority groups served? Are building facilities, play fields, and equipment for community recreation programs adequate? Is full use made of the school facilities? What is the feeling in the community toward various recreational activities, such as card playing and dancing?

X. SOCIAL WELFARE WORK IN THE COMMUNITY

What agencies concerned with social welfare are there in the community, or serving it from near-by offices? What programs do these agencies administer? Just what does the work of the county welfare office involve? What people within the community are helped by these agencies? What is the community attitude toward those needing such assistance? Is there a child-welfare worker in the community or county? What are his responsibilities? What workers in the community are included in the provisions of the Social Security Act? Are the laws concerning child labor in agriculture enforced? Who has the responsibility for enforcing them?

How serious is juvenile delinquency? What kinds of delinquency occur? What seem to be the basic causes? How are delinquents dealt with? Are there case workers and probation officers? What kinds of delinquency preventive programs seem to be needed? Is community judgment of delinquency harsh and unreasoning?

XI. ADEQUACY AND INTEGRATION OF COMMUNITY LIFE

The organized groups in the community have been noted. How effectively do these groups co-operate in all-community projects? What outstandingly successful all-community projects have been carried through in the community? What ones are in progress? To what extent and in what ways do undesirable competition and friction between organized groups exist? Do the memberships in groups overlap or do the organized groups reflect class and economic group divisions? Are there any effective organizations with members from all parts and groups of the community, as, for example, a strong Parent-Teacher Association?

Are there any sharp conflicts or special group interests in the community? If so, describe the situation. Is there any established procedure or organization for the purpose of co-ordinating community activities, as a Planning Committee or a Co-ordinating Community Council? If not, what evidence is there of the need for such organization?

How effective is the local newspaper in creating informed opinion on community problems?

What needs which should be met by community organization are not being satisfied?

XII. RELATIONS WITH THE WORLD BEYOND THE COMMUNITY

What significant evidence is there that the community is becoming increasingly self-sufficient or less self-sufficient as a social and economic unit? What areas of community life could be strengthened by developing more effective ties with agencies, organizations, or governmental activities outside the community? What relations has the community with adjoining communities and near-by cities—as, for example, participation in county, regional, or state fairs, inter-high school athletic competition, planning and promoting highway development, use of specialized shopping districts?

What newspapers carrying national and world news are read in the community? To what extent does radio bring the community into touch with world news and with important music? What links exist between local organizations and state and national organizations? To what extent do the people participate effectively in such nation-wide programs as those of the Soil Conservation Service, the Agricultural Extension Service, and the like? Is it easy to travel into and out of the community? Do the people travel?

How Children, Teachers, and Parents Share in Community Study

So far, the discussion has suggested only that the teacher study the community. A word should be said about other uses of community surveys and the ways in which they may be made.

Many schools in both urban and rural communities engage in community study by the teacher and children together as a curriculum experience through which the children grow in understanding of their environment. It may begin with some simple exploration of ways of transportation used in the community, for example, or perhaps with a study of food-processing plants. Sometimes such a study may reveal community needs the children can help to meet. A Community Clean-Up Campaign, for instance, may grow from a community survey. Through such service projects, the children of a community can grow in attitudes of responsibility to the com-

munity welfare and in their ability to work co-operatively with others.

The community survey becomes of greatest value when it is shared by the entire community. A rural community organized for such inventory-taking is well on its way to becoming a better place in which to live. Typically, the all-community study starts with one problem—that of safety, or of recreational needs, for example. But, as in so many activities, the one problem leads to another, and the processes of community study, community planning, and community action grow naturally out of the small beginning.

Definite Ways in Which the Rural Teacher Can Strengthen School and Community Relations

Study of the community, whether undertaken by the teacher alone or as a school or all-community project, is useful to the extent it leads to more effective ties between school and community life, and to community action on common needs. For the teacher, the immediate question is that of finding ways by which school and community ties may be strengthened. There are a number of ways open to every teacher.

1. The teacher can act to establish herself as an effective citizen in the community. One reason why many rural schools have not been effective agencies in community life has been the fact that rural teachers have so often been but transient workers, not true community citizens. Conditions have not been such that rural teaching has offered career possibilities to able young men and women. Working conditions, salaries, and living accommodations in many places must be improved before the situation becomes much better. Yet every year many young teachers do begin their professional work in the rural schools. The rural teacher who is sincerely anxious to succeed and to make her work socially significant will realize that her effectiveness in the community will depend in large measure on her making a happy and satisfying adjustment to rural living. It will depend on her acceptance by the people of the community as a professional worker and as a person. Some practical suggestions for establishing oneself as a teacher are pertinent.

A good beginning is important. It helps to learn as much as possible about the school and the community before accepting any position. It is a fact that small rural communities are less tolerant of certain types of leisure-time activities than are larger urban centers. In this respect, attitudes of rural people are changing and such activities as card-playing and attending public dances are not widely disapproved. The point is that by learning what is expected in the community each teacher can decide whether she can adjust to community standards there. It is important, too, to survey possible living arrangements and to choose wisely. It is highly desirable that the teacher live in the community.

Having accepted a position, the teacher should think of the community as her home. Her viewpoint should be that of a member of the community, insofar as possible. As a community citizen, the teacher has a place in its activities and a share in the common responsibility for having it a good place in which to live. She can help plan and carry out community meetings and community activities. She can visit the homes of her pupils. She can spend many week ends in the community, sharing the informal neighboring and recreational activities, and form real friendships with the people. She can show sincere interest in community problems and in learning more about them. By such activities, she identifies herself with the community and strengthens her position as a leader or a potential leader.

2. It is important that the teacher give careful attention to the routine contacts between the school and the homes. The ordinary routines of school work present many opportunities for building desirable home and school ties. Some teachers fail to take full advantage of them. The closest ties between home and school are the children themselves. The school, like the home, should give satisfaction to the child's basic personality needs—security, a sense of belonging, respect, a fair measure of success, warm human relationships, achievement. The experiences the children have at school should satisfy these needs and appeal to the children as worth while and purposeful. School at best is a place where children like to be, and where they do significant things. If these conditions are truly met, the children's reports at home about their school work will constitute the best public relations program any school can have.

Parents are always welcome visitors at school. There will be times when special invitations are issued so parents may share with children some culminating activity or school program. Observances of special days such as Halloween and Christmas, the showing of a good motion picture in connection with some unit being studied, the completion of some new feature such as a school museum—these and many other similar situations offer opportunities for parent visitation. The programs on such occasions should be informal and should represent natural outcomes from regular school work. Tediously rehearsed and elaborately staged “entertainments” have little place in modern schools.

Many schools have “visiting days” when the usual program is followed. After all, what parents are most interested in is the regular life of the school. First graders’ parents are always interested in the progress their children are making in learning to read. Some schools follow a plan of having the teacher and pupils co-operatively keep folders in which are filed samples of the children’s work, the results of informal tests, records of school tasks completed, and the like. When parents visit school, both pupils and teacher share in showing these and explaining the work they represent.

Sometimes changes in instructional methods confuse parents. Such changes can and should be explained to them. One example is the recent change from cursive to manuscript writing in the lower grades. Another example is the practice of postponing reading instruction for children who do not seem ready for it. Much parent understanding and good will can be developed through a few simple meetings and individual conferences where full explanation is made of reasons for new practices.

Report cards represent another link between the school and the homes. As pointed out in an earlier chapter, parents attach much importance to them. Conscientious attention to home reports and care in making them as effective as possible are to be desired.

3. The teacher can use community resources in many classroom activities. In every community there are resources for enriching schoolroom learning. From her study of the community the teacher will know many of them. It will be helpful to begin a list or card-file record of these, noting important points about each resource. Then, as different units of work are developed, more can be added.

Persons are "resources." The Agricultural Extension Service workers can help with many types of activities, such as the lunch program. The public health workers may be ready to give talks or furnish reading material for a study of school and community health. There may be farmers who can contribute much to study of soils, seeds, plant life, and so on. Perhaps there are individuals who have traveled widely and are willing to share their experiences and show pictures and collections of objects from foreign lands. Some parents may be able and glad to help with music activities. Others may have special skills to share with children in arts and crafts projects. Amateur photographers, stamp collectors, carpenters, mechanics, and many others will be able to contribute to various school undertakings. Older boys and girls may belong to such organizations as 4-H Clubs, Boy Scouts, and Girl Scouts and be willing to demonstrate special skills they have learned—in signaling, cooking, first aid, and so on.

Materials for arts and crafts work may be found in many rural communities. These may include clay, wood suitable for carving and lumber for construction activities, leather, and native dyestuffs. There may be looms the school can use, and tools for working wood and metal and leather.

From offices of government agencies the school can secure much material, such as bulletins and posters dealing with soil conservation, public health, homemaking activities, and farming practices. Similar materials may be available at local business places, particularly farm-machinery agencies.

There may be articles of historical value in the homes, such as old newspapers, legal documents like early land deeds, books, letters, old furniture, costumes, and maps. Such articles do much to give reality to any study of the past. When articles are borrowed for school use, it is the teacher's responsibility to see that they are handled carefully and returned promptly. If the articles are valuable, it may be best to ask the owners to bring and show them at school, thus avoiding risks of handling them and of leaving them in the school building.

Rural communities are especially rich in resources for science experiences. These include not only the nature world but machines. Such science units as "Seeds," "Rocks and Soils," "Crop Improve-

ment," "Putting the Wind to Work," and others suggest ways in which resources may be drawn upon.

4. School excursions into the community to study things at first-hand will provide another school-community link. Some community resources cannot be brought into the classroom, but the children can go to them. For example, there may be sites of historical interest, such as log or sod cabins of early settlers, an Indian battleground, or one of the trails over which the westward migration of the American people moved. The children may not be making full use of the community library. If so, a carefully planned visit to it, with an introduction to the librarian and an explanation of how to check out books, will be worth while. If the school decides to publish a school newspaper, then a visit to the local newspaper office may be arranged. Children may visit a court session during their study of government.

Farm work itself will justify many good excursions. It is often thought of as simple, and in a way it is. At least it is easily observed, and the cause-and-effect relationships in man's work are direct. Yet the farmer's work is also complex in that it involves the application of scientific knowledge drawn from many fields. One of the best ways of helping rural children develop appreciation of the part science plays in their daily living is to help them grow in understanding of the activities and processes with which they have routine familiarity. For example, how are seed potatoes treated for certain diseases? Why does such treatment prevent the disease? How was this knowledge developed? Why does a certain vaccine prevent a disease in calves? How is the vaccine produced? Just what is hybrid corn? What are the dangers of food-poisoning from home-canned food products? What methods of canning are safest, and why? What farm practices are soil-conserving and what practices are soil-depleting, and why? How is the butterfat content of cream measured?

An almost endless list of such questions can be developed from everyday farm experiences. They present many opportunities for worth-while excursions. Some may seem to involve concepts too advanced for elementary school children, yet it must be remembered they spring from activities which even small children observe and work in which most farm children share. The teacher may find she

needs to do a considerable amount of studying on some problems herself. By doing so, she too will grow in understanding of rural life and the rural environment.

5. School and community can be linked through co-operation with community organizations and activities. A more advanced level of school-community integration is achieved when the school shares in the activities of the community as a whole and of organizations within it. Such co-operation may grow from simple beginnings. A "community news" page or column in the school newspaper or a section on the school bulletin board devoted to brief reports written by children about their out-of-school activities may reveal opportunities. Through such a technique the teacher will come to know of community parties, 4-H Club projects, plans for forming farm co-operatives, and other significant happenings.

From such beginnings the teacher can develop more advanced relationships. The school building may be used for meetings of community groups, both of children and of adults. Conferences with leaders of out-of-school activities for children may lead to discovery of projects on which children may work in school, also. Scouts and 4-H Clubs, for example, do a good deal of arts and crafts work. They also develop activities involving farming and homemaking knowledge and skills. Through co-operative planning, the teacher and the leaders of other groups may strengthen both in-school and out-of-school learning experiences. As a general thing, children are genuinely interested in the types of projects mentioned, and this interest can be used as an asset in such everyday school work as reading and arithmetic.

Public health officials normally work through the schools in sponsoring immunization clinics and tuberculosis testing, and in conducting physical examinations. The teacher has an active part in such programs. When school and community health needs warrant it, she may take the initiative in stimulating co-operative action with health agencies.

A hot lunch program is another way in which school and homes may be drawn together. Co-operation of teacher, children, parents, and such special workers as the public health nurse will be involved. From school lunches it is only a short step to consideration of home nutrition programs. This is a good topic for parent-teacher meetings,

and it can grow quite naturally out of committee consideration of lunch hour problems.

Making the schoolroom and grounds as healthful, safe, and beautiful as possible is yet another project which can easily bring home and school together. It is not too long a step from such a school project to home and community improvement programs. In some rural schools, children have grown shrubs and plants for transplanting in home yards and in community parks.

6. The school may be able to stimulate development of projects which serve to unify and integrate the community. Sanderson and Polson, in their discussion of community organization, make this significant statement:

We have seen that in the process of community organization the important thing is to get the people and groups of the community working together to meet some common need. In working together a community esprit de corps is built up through the satisfaction of shared emotional experience, and diverse elements in the community forget their differences in loyalty to a common enterprise.¹

One of the most effective procedures, in seeking to advance community organization, is to initiate some good all-community project. It must be noted, however, that the community must clearly sense a real need. And leadership can be asserted only by one who has rightfully earned a position of leadership. As has been noted, some projects may grow naturally out of school activities. In stimulating others, the teacher may need to work through other community leaders or in co-operation with established organizations. It will be wise to remember that first projects should be ones requiring little expense and effort, and which can be completed in a fairly short time.

Several good community projects are discussed below. Some may already be well developed in certain communities. Others may suggest needs in particular communities.

Special days may be observed by community events. The school may develop appropriate programs, and gradually widen the scope of the activity so that young adults and older people in the community

¹Reproduced by permission from Sanderson and Polson's *Rural Community Organization*, p. 261, published by John Wiley and Sons.

participate. The community Christmas tree is a good example of such a project, and it is one that the school is in a favorable position to initiate. Community programs channeling Halloween interests into desirable activities is another such activity. A Halloween parade, with prizes for original costumes and perhaps with refreshments for all children, may be planned.

Fairs and festivals are good rural community projects. In many counties, the Agricultural Extension Service encourages fairs. Both children and adults share in preparing exhibits and in the programs. Harvest festivals are traditional in some places. Sometimes church groups organize such activities. The range of possible exhibits and activities in connection with such events is wide and offers many possibilities for school participation.

Recreation activities appeal to everyone. Events may include folk games, folk dancing, modern dancing, competitive sports, and all sorts of group games. A community picnic at the close of the school term is a traditional activity in rural communities. Community parks, swimming pools, and picnic grounds add to good living. Development of such facilities may be one activity in which the school can take leadership. Planning the layout of the area, growing shrubs and trees for plantings, and constructing outdoor cooking and eating facilities are activities in which children and adults may join.

The school has a direct interest in stimulating and leading *library development projects*. Library services and facilities in many rural communities are quite inadequate. County libraries may be able to establish branches in the local schools, serving adults as well as children. Bookmobile service may be feasible. On such a project as this, a community committee with school representation may be organized to develop the project.

School district reorganization, where it is needed, should be a true community project. Leadership may come from sources outside the community, as from the county and state school offices, but local board members and teachers and parents have a significant interest and must participate actively in the planning that goes on if the reorganization is to succeed. It must be said, though, that district reorganization is often a source of sharp conflict, and care must be taken to prevent such a result.

Community planning committees or co-ordinating councils greatly facilitate the work of making community surveys, initiating and carrying through community projects, and co-ordinating the efforts of various groups. Such central agencies are usually representative of all organized groups and of the people and interests of the community. The planning committee can serve to promote organization and provide leadership in communities not yet well organized, or in communities confronted with challenging problems. The co-ordinating council serves a somewhat different function, that of co-ordinating activities of organizations in communities which are already quite highly organized.

Summary

The teacher must know the community her school serves and in which the children she teaches live, if she is to live there as an effective citizen and develop school experiences which both draw from and contribute to good community living. To that end, systematic community study is essential. Community study may also be undertaken by the children in regular curriculum units. Sometimes the whole community may co-operate in such a survey.

Six general procedures have been suggested for strengthening school and community relationships, and for making the school more effective as an agency of community improvement. (1) It is important that the teacher establish herself as an effective person in community life. (2) There are many possibilities for strengthening home and school relationships in the regular routines of school life. (3) Much good use may be made of community resources in classroom activities. (4) There are many opportunities for worth-while school excursions into the community. (5) The school can share in and co-operate with community organizations and activities. (6) Through the school, worth-while and integrating all-community projects may be stimulated.

Questions for Study and Discussion

1. Why is the study of the community a worth-while, even necessary, activity for the rural teacher?
2. What cautions may well be observed by the teacher as she undertakes systematic community study?
3. How may children and parents be brought into community study?
4. List routine home and school relationships through which the teacher may strengthen the place of the school in the community.
5. Give examples of community resources that can be made subjects for worth-while school excursions.
6. List types of community resources that may be used in the classroom in connection with regular curriculum units.
7. Suggest ways by which the school can share in community life through co-operation with existing organizations and agencies.
8. In what types of all-community projects may rural schools exercise leadership?

Activity

Using the suggested guide to study of rural communities, make a study of some rural community. Divide responsibilities among committees; then pool data and write the report. Adapt the suggested guide as seems necessary. Finally, note how much information seems to be incomplete and of the kind that can be learned only through actual living in the community.

Bibliography

- American Association of School Administrators, *Schools in Small Communities: Seventeenth Yearbook*. Washington, D.C.: The Association, 1939.
- Bathurst, Effie G., *Schools Count in Country Life*. Washington, D.C.: United States Office of Education, 1947.

- Collings, Ellsworth, *An Experiment with a Project Curriculum*. New York: The Macmillan Company, 1923.
- Greenhoe, Florence, *Community Contacts and Participation of Teachers*. Washington, D.C.: American Council on Public Affairs, 1941.
- National Conference on Facilities for Athletics, Recreation, Health and Physical Education, *A Guide for Planning Facilities for Athletics, Recreation, Physical and Health Education*. Chicago: The Athletic Institute, 1947.
- National Education Association of the United States, Department of Rural Education, *Community Resources in Rural Schools: Yearbook, 1939*, edited by Kate V. Wofford. Washington, D.C.: The Association, 1939.
- , *Conservation Education in Rural Schools: Yearbook, 1943*, edited by Effie G. Bathurst. Washington, D.C.: The Association, 1943.
- Northern Great Plains Conservation Education Committee, *Education in Conservation of Soil and Water*. Lincoln, Nebraska: Soil Conservation Service, 1945.
- Olsen, Edward G., and Others, *School and Community*. New York: Prentice-Hall, 1945.
- Olson, Clara M., *A Community School of Social Action*. Gainesville, Florida: Florida Curriculum Laboratory, University of Florida, 1944.
- Sanderson, Dwight, and Polson, Robert A., *Rural Community Organization*. New York: John Wiley and Sons, 1939.
- Wofford, Kate V., *Modern Education in the Small Rural School*. New York: The Macmillan Company, 1938.

THE FUTURE OF THE RURAL SCHOOLS

RURAL SCHOOLS HAVE CONTRIBUTED much to the development of American democracy. From them have passed successive generations of good citizens and many of the nation's great men and women. To rural schools today go one half of the children of America. It is certain that in the years ahead the rural schools will continue to share largely in the responsibilities of public education.

How adequate are the rural schools of today, in terms of their responsibilities? Those responsibilities are much greater and more complex than was true in the relatively simpler society of two or three generations past. Rural social organization has changed, reflecting the fundamental and worldwide changes in the conditions of human living. Yet in far too many instances the old patterns of rural education persist unchanged. "The little red schoolhouse," with its Three R's curriculum, served its day well and rightly merits the place it holds in the nation's memories; but for education of citizens for the world of today and tomorrow, it simply is not adequate.

This final chapter, therefore, is devoted to a discussion of what must be done so to strengthen the rural schools that they can function effectively in educating for life in the world of today. The discussion is developed in terms of the answers to two questions: (1) What steps are necessary to make the rural schools adequate to the needs of the times? (2) What goals should guide curriculum development in modern rural schools?

Steps Necessary to Make Rural Schools Adequate to the Needs of the Times

As has been pointed out in preceding chapters, many of the handicaps besetting the rural schools today can be overcome. Indeed, on most of the problems involved, there has been sufficient research and experimental practice to establish desirable principles and practices.

The basic administrative units must be reorganized. The confused and inefficient pattern of administrative units within which rural schools now operate has been discussed. Clearly, conditions in many states call for a thorough reorganization of school districts. A number of studies have been made to determine what constitutes an effective administrative unit. Recommendations developed by such studies differ. Reviewing them, the White House Conference on Rural Education reported:

Adequate standards and satisfactory criteria are needed for sound organization of administrative units. Several studies have been made as to what constitutes a satisfactory local administrative unit. Fuller pointed out that the force of local autonomy has usually been strengthened by the merging of small local units. Dawson concluded from his research that a satisfactory administrative unit which could provide a standard organization was one which consisted of 280 teachers and approximately 10,000 pupils, and that the maximum modification of this standard would require a minimum of about 45 teachers and 1600 pupils. Briscoe concluded from his study that the minimum size of a school unit which can provide skill and economical administration and supervision was one employing at least 40 teachers, and that from 80 to 90 teachers would come more nearly assuring economical administration. Works and Lesser suggest that there is no one "best" size or type of administrative unit but that careful research and experience indicate that an administrative unit should have a minimum of 40 teachers and approximately 1200 pupils, and that there would be gains in efficiency in increasing the size of the units to justify employing 300 teachers. The Southern States Work Conference on School Administrative Problems, attended by representatives from 14 Southern and border states, in 1942 recommended that state laws discourage the organization of adminis-

trative units with less than 2000 children of school age and with an assessed valuation for ad valorem tax purposes of less than \$3,000,000 and preferably \$4,000,000. The Michigan Public Education Study Commission recommended that a school unit have at least \$3,000,000 of state equalized real and personal property valuation and a minimum enrollment of 360 students in Grades VII to XII. These recommendations are in general supported by the findings of the U. S. Office of Education in its study of local school units in ten states in co-operation with the state departments of education.¹

No single size or type of administrative unit, in specific terms of how many pupils, or how many teachers, or how much wealth, can be recommended for general adoption. Density of population, natural community groupings, and the wealth available for school support must all influence local unit administrative patterns. Every administrative unit, however, should be adequate to guarantee these characteristics of democratic education:

1. Adequate wealth to provide acceptable educational opportunities for all children and youth of elementary and high school age, and for the possible extension of new educational opportunities to pre-school children, older youth, and adults.
2. Competent administration and supervision by professionally trained personnel, to include instructional leadership and efficient business management.
3. The extension of school services to include health and dental services, library service, parent education, recreational programs, and psychological and psychiatric services—either by the local unit or by effective co-operation of it with other units and agencies.
4. Control of the schools by the people they serve, through elected lay boards of education.

Automobiles, modern roads, telephones, modern methods of distributive business, and other factors of modern life have expanded the boundaries of rural communities. Farmers have joined with nonfarm people in church life, lodges, and other activities. Many share in activities of farm co-operatives on a community, county, even statewide basis. The same factors of modern living

¹The White House Conference on Rural Education, 1944, *Proceedings*, pp. 155-156. Used by permission of the National Education Association of the United States.

which have brought about these groupings, all of which are wider than neighborhood relationships, call for reorganization of local school administrative units.

Most, but not necessarily all, of such reorganized rural school units should be village-centered or town-centered. They must be sufficiently small and socially homogeneous that the people in them will retain the sense of participation in and relationship to the school which is essential for strong democratic education. The control must be by elected boards, but the administration must be by professionally educated superintendents appointed by the boards. The school districts should be responsive, on the one hand, to the educational needs and desires of the people within them and, on the other hand, to the broader leadership of state departments of education and of national professional groups.

Reorganized units may be county units; or modified county units, leaving certain strong districts independent; or enlarged districts of less than county area. With reorganization of administrative units may or may not go consolidation of attendance units. Consolidation of attendance units is really a separate matter. Reorganization of administrative units is advocated not as a means of securing larger and larger schools, but in order that districts possessing adequate resources to support modern education may be developed. It is an essential step in the elimination of the wide inequalities in educational opportunity which exist today in rural America.

Much improvement can result from further consolidation of attendance units. As has been stated, the question of consolidating attendance units is not necessarily involved in reorganizing administrative units. Yet the problem of school consolidation deserves more than passing mention. Schools with only a few pupils cannot develop many of the group activities so important in the life of the modern school. Even play experiences are necessarily limited in very small schools. Such schools are relatively expensive to maintain and, when viewed realistically, give little promise of becoming true community schools.

When several such schools exist within a few miles of one another, the improvements which can come with consolidation are obvious. The school building can be a more adequate setting for modern education and for community activities. The teaching load of staff

members can be reduced. Enriched curriculum experiences, as in the fields of music and art, can be provided. Social living for the children can be extended. Professionally competent administrative and supervisory staff members can be employed.

Because of these obvious advantages, rural school consolidation has been widespread. In 1920 there were 187,948 one-teacher school buildings in use. By 1943-44 the one-room buildings in use numbered only 96,302.¹ The greatest gains in consolidation were made in the 1920-1930 decade. During the war years the movement again accelerated, chiefly because of the teacher shortage. It seems probable, however, that not all wartime consolidations will be permanent.

There are also some arguments against consolidation. Many farm people feel that the local school gives a kind of unity and identity to the community. Not all are agreed on the desirability of having children ride school busses, which may involve waiting by the road in good weather and in bad. Finally, in many sparsely populated areas, school consolidation would involve transporting pupils over long distances.

Certain standards have been suggested by which local groups may judge the desirability of proposed consolidations. The Committee on Program and Policy of the Department of Rural Education of the National Education Association of the United States has suggested the following:

Other things being equal, an elementary-school attendance unit should have enough children attending a single elementary school to justify at least one teacher to a grade with a ratio of about 30 pupils per teacher; and a high-school attendance unit should have enough children attending a single high school to justify the employment of at least 10 teachers and the maintenance ratio not to exceed 30 pupils per teacher. An important limitation on providing schools of these minimum sizes is the distance the children live from the school. In general, children should not have to walk more than one and one half or two miles to or from school, or spend more than one hour en route to or from school if transportation is provided. Nor should children be transported over roads that present extreme hazards. Another important limitation on the achievement of these standards

¹United States Office of Education, *Statistics of State School Systems, 1943-44*, p. 11.

is the necessity of preserving the integrity of real sociological communities.¹

Thus it is clear that no hard-and-fast measures can be applied in any local situation to determine whether or not consolidation is desirable. There are persons who would feel that the standards suggested above are not sufficiently rigid. Many, for example, feel that children in the lower grades should not spend two hours a day riding to and from school unless the alternative is not to go to school.

In many states, existing legal provisions regulating consolidation are so awkward that they tend to block intelligent action by the people. Many of them provide that a majority of voters in any district must consent to consolidation before the change can be made. This makes it possible for a small minority to block consolidation in many communities. More effective state legislation dealing with consolidation is needed.

Adequate and stable financial support for rural schools must be provided. Speaking at the White House Conference on Rural Education in 1944, Franklin D. Roosevelt succinctly stated the financial problem of the rural schools:

Frankly, the chief problem of rural education is the problem of dollars and cents. You and I know that. We know also that in very many cases the problem cannot be solved by increasing the total taxes because the taxable values are just not there.²

The situation, in summary, is this: Rural communities have to educate more children with less money; and urban communities, fewer children with more money.

The chief reliance for school revenues continues to be property taxation within the local administrative units. This constitutes one of the major weaknesses in the rural school finance system. State and Federal government revenues lean increasingly on taxes other than those levied on real property. While schools continue to depend on such taxes, only limited and frequently unstable revenues are provided. Furthermore, the situation gives real-estate owners a dis-

¹Committee on Program and Policy, Department of Rural Education, *A Policy for Rural Education in the United States*, p. 35. Used by permission of the National Education Association of the United States.

²The White House Conference on Rural Education, 1944, *Proceedings*, p. 116.

proportionate power over school finances. In modern society, much wealth is represented by intangible property. In its statement on policies for rural education, the Department of Rural Education of the N.E.A. makes this recommendation :

For the most part the state should raise its revenue from sources other than taxes on general property and should utilize a highly diversified tax program with rates sufficiently flexible to guarantee stability of revenue in times of economic adversity. Of the many types of taxes that may be utilized, those most generally agreed upon as sound are taxes on personal incomes, corporate incomes, business privileges, luxuries, and natural products—minerals, timber, and the like—severed from the soil.¹

Every state has the obligation to provide an adequate minimum program of education to all children of school age, without discrimination because of place of residence, place of birth, or race. While most states have taken steps toward discharge of this obligation, through what are commonly called equalization funds or state-aid programs, few have established minimum standards in all the elements of an adequate program. Such standards, upon which distribution of funds should be contingent, should deal with school plant and equipment, teacher and supervisory personnel, teaching supplies, and such auxiliary services as libraries and facilities for health and medical care. The state may achieve the goal in either one of two ways. It may require administrative units to levy some fixed rate of taxes and supplement the amount thus raised to the extent necessary for support of the minimum program. Or it may pay the entire cost of the minimum program or of some set portion of it, leaving to the administrative units the responsibility of raising additional revenues. Under either plan, the administrative units must be given opportunity to raise revenues through local taxation for support of educational activities which exceed the minimum guaranteed by the state. Thus local initiative and local leadership may result—and in most cases will result—in development of schools better than those meeting minimum standards; while at least minimum-standard schools would be made available to all, even in the poorest districts.

¹Committee on Program and Policy, Department of Rural Education, *op. cit.*, p. 41. Used by permission of the N.E.A.

In the administration of state-aid programs, care must be taken not to allocate funds in such ways that the continuance of small, uneconomical, and ineffective administrative units is encouraged. Alford's study shows¹ that the manner in which state-aid funds are now distributed in some states does tend to retard reorganization of administrative units.

Many thoughtful persons today agree that the national government must appropriate funds for school support, and distribute those funds to the several states on the basis of need. The administration and control of public education as a state function must be preserved, and this can be done. In modern society, education for democratic citizenship must be viewed as a problem of national concern. The rejection of large numbers of young men, for lack of educational achievement, in the Selective Service program is a clear-cut warning that some states lack resources for school support. The national population is characterized by a high degree of mobility. Rural wealth continues to flow to the cities through the cityward migration of rural youth educated at the expense of rural communities, and through the division of rural estates. These facts argue strongly for Federal financial aid to state school systems.

Good rural schools demand good teachers. No effective reconstruction of rural education can take place so long as rural teaching remains a transient occupation of the most poorly educated of the nation's teachers. The teacher's position is at the very heart of the educational process.

What can and must be done to make rural teaching more attractive? The following five steps have been suggested:

- a. Dignify the profession of teaching by raising the standards of the amount and character of education required for certification and entrance into the profession. The effective preparation of rural teachers should include thorough education in the adaption of educational philosophy, organization, methods and content to the basic characteristics and needs of rural living.
- b. Rural teachers should be paid salaries commensurate with the cultural standards of living professional workers have a right to expect.

¹Harold D. Alford, *Procedures for School District Reorganization*, p. 139.

- c. Rural communities should make available attractive and comfortable living quarters for rural teachers. This is primarily a public, community responsibility.
- d. Modern, well-equipped school buildings in aesthetic school surroundings will do much to make rural school teaching more attractive.
- e. Rural teachers should be assured by practice at least, and by law if necessary, security of tenure as a reward for faithful and competent service.¹

Payment of adequate salaries is the basic readjustment needed. The salaries paid rural teachers must be adequate in terms of living costs to attract and hold the best college graduates. The factors of living and working conditions rank high in importance, also. Permanent school sites should provide attractive houses or apartments for teachers if suitable housing is not available in the community. These improvements, and increased security of tenure, can follow naturally if administrative units are reorganized and adequate financial support for rural schools is provided.

As a practicable goal for the immediate future, the minimum preparation of rural elementary teachers should be set at two years of education beyond high school graduation. This standard should be raised as soon as possible to four years of college education. Unqualified teachers now in the schools should be required to meet the new standards within specified periods, and extensive in-service education programs must be provided to help them do so. This is a point of particular importance, for the rural schools have far more than their share of the teachers who hold emergency certificates.

Professional supervision must be provided for the rural schools. Professional supervision and leadership is an essential condition for the development of adequate instructional programs in rural schools. It has been said there is probably no other single way in which rural education can be improved more effectively than through sound supervision programs. The need for supervision is great at the present time because so many rural teachers are poorly educated, inexperienced, and insecure in tenure.

¹American Country Life Conference, *Proceedings of 24th Conference: Farm and Rural Life After the War*, p. 74. Used by permission of American Country Life Association, Inc.

As teacher standards are raised, the type and kind of supervision needed will change. With present rural teaching personnel, it is not difficult to explain the persistence of the obsolete inspectorial type of supervision. With improved teacher standards, however, a more co-operative type of supervision and educational leadership can replace it.

Because rural areas most in need of supervision are likely to be those least able to afford it and perhaps least likely to recognize the need for it, the states must assume a large share of responsibility for its development. Experience indicates that supervision can make the greatest contribution to the improvement of rural schools where its development is encouraged through financial aid from the state. Some states where supervision has made great advances provide the service as a function of the state department of education.

The school plant and equipment must be designed to provide facilities for modern programs. The educational program to be offered by the school must be the starting point in planning school buildings and equipment. Discussion of these two important factors is difficult, however, because the size of the school, the adequacy of community facilities apart from the school plant, and other local factors must weigh heavily in local planning. Certain descriptive standards can be suggested in terms of the characteristic activities of modern school programs, however.

1. The program of rural schools must be inclusive and flexible, involving active participation by the learners in many types of situations. There should be much group work. One-teacher and two-teacher school buildings should have several small rooms adjacent to the central room; and multi-room buildings must provide more than classroom space. There should be facilities for shop work, physical examinations, health programs, parent meetings, use of audio-visual aids, dramatic experiences, listening experiences, play activities both indoors and out, and many out-of-door experiences such as gardening, care of animals, raising of plants and shrubs, and the practice of soil-conservation measures.
2. Facilities should be provided for preparing and serving food, both for school lunches and for community meetings.
3. Attractive and comfortable living quarters should be provided for teachers.

4. For aesthetic enjoyment and growth, the school plant should be well designed and carefully landscaped.
5. Health and safety protection requires indoor toilets, central heating, washing facilities, safe water supply, electric lights, and scientific arrangement of wall and window space and seating.

The modern rural school plant should serve the needs of community groups; hence it must be planned as an *educational center*, rather than merely as a *school*. Of course, when a community possesses other facilities outside the school plant, the requirements may be modified. In the larger school plants, certain additional features are desirable. Community food-processing centers and refrigeration plants are examples. Many rural high schools might well have farms where experimental and demonstration experiences may be provided for boys and girls, and for their parents, also.

In connection with the one-teacher country schools, it is necessary to consider whether the school site is permanent or temporary. For temporary schools, portable units may be used. Even in permanent small country schools, it may be uneconomical to provide special plant facilities for some services. These may be provided by mobile units. Some rural areas have long been served by bookmobiles operated from central libraries, and the idea can be extended to other types of special services.

New Goals to Guide Curriculum Development in New Rural Schools

Given reorganization of administrative units, adequate financial support, educated and competent teachers, professional supervision, and improved buildings, what goals should the new rural schools then serve?

If it be accepted that the function of education is to maintain and strengthen democracy in a time of social change and stress such as the present, then clearly the old goals of education must be subjected to careful review. Those goals were, essentially, the extension of literacy and the preparation of the individual for participation in the economic life of the nation. For rural high schools, the college-preparatory purpose is too narrow to square with the realities of the times which should define the high school program. The recon-

structed rural school, staffed by teachers who understand rural society and its relationships with the larger national and world societies, will recognize its responsibility as centered in *the child growing up in democratic society*. The goals which then will guide the teacher's work will reflect the child's needs as a present and a future member of that society. Similarly, as rural education extends new opportunities to out-of-school groups, its concern will be for the individual in a democratic social order.

The task of defining goals for the rural schools is complicated because two groups must be served. Nearly one half of all rural children and youth must find their adult opportunities in non-farm areas. Who will remain and who will leave cannot be foretold. Though at first glance this consideration may seem to increase the difficulty of stating goals for rural schools, its effect on the rural school program is really a desirable one. Recognition of it tempers the enthusiasm of educators who would develop education too narrowly directed at rural living. Some rural educators have made the mistake of thinking of rural education only as preparation for rural life. After all, the general social aims of rural schools and of urban schools are the same. The forms they take and the ways in which they are realized through school experiences may differ, but the beginning point in any search for the aims of education in today's world must be a recognition of the interdependence of all people.

1. Education must aim to improve the present living of the pupils. One of the best examples of rural schools working to improve the present living of its pupils has been provided in the mountain schools of Kentucky. Working under the leadership of the Sloan Foundation and the University of Kentucky, the country schools participating in the experiment have developed curriculum experiences quite different from traditional ones. It was recognized that many of the families were living on inadequate and poorly balanced diets, although there were resources for the production of good food. Reading materials were developed, dealing with how to raise goats, gardens, and chickens. Families were led to change farming practices so as to produce food for balanced family diets. At school, the children studied how to do these things; at home they shared in the actual work. Parents came to school, too, to learn. The Sloan Foundation has also pioneered in education relating to housing

needs and to clothing needs in various rural communities in other states.¹

The Holtville, Alabama, school has been noted for the realistic nature of the learning experiences it offers children and youth in the rural community it serves.² The program of the Julius Rosenwald Fund in the Southern states gives yet another notable example of how schools, with some guidance and support, can relate what goes on inside them to the life around them.

Not all activities appropriate to the aim of *improving the present living of the pupils* may be as striking as those given in these examples. The needs of children and youth and adults naturally differ somewhat from one community to another, and those of individuals within any community also vary. It may be that needs are most striking in what may be called underprivileged communities, yet the point may well be made that *not all human needs relate to food, shelter, and clothing*. The need for sound health, both physical and mental, for all people is conspicuous in the world today. The problems involved in what are called *human relationships* likewise point to many needs. No complete cataloguing of possible ways in which schools may move to improve present living in the communities they serve is possible. The range of activities appropriate to the general aim is as wide as the range of activities involved in living. Relating what goes on in school to the lives of the children means helping the children grow in the kinds of knowledge, skills, and attitudes they need to live good lives. This may mean individual effort by the school, or work in groups, or co-operation among groups, in building learning experiences. The improvement sought must not be bestowed nor imposed. Needs must be real for the learners, and purposes valid. Learning what is needed and learning by doing are the keynotes to educational activities for the achievement of this goal.

¹See Charles L. Durrance, Jr., "Better Housing Through Education," in *Journal of the National Education Association* for January, 1947, pp. 14-17; Maurice F. Seay, "Better Food—Better Learning," in *Journal of the National Education Association* for February, 1947, pp. 88-91; and Maurice B. Morrill and Arthur B. Elliott, "Better Clothing Through Education," in *Journal of the National Education Association* for March, 1947, pp. 202-205.

²See M. Davis, "Lots Goes on Here," in *Country Gentleman* for March, 1941, pp. 12-13.

2. Education must prepare for responsible and effective adult participation in community living. It is recognized that education not only must be concerned with the improvement of present living but must look ahead to adult needs as well. For example, there is need of certain special guidance work in rural high schools. Perhaps as many as one half of rural youth must leave rural communities. Many of those who remain on the land will move each year or so. Both the cityward migration and the farm-to-farm migrations are usually in response to immediate economic pressures, and both involve large numbers of young adults. Guidance workers are aware of the need for increasing the measure of intelligent planning involved in these movements. Acceptance of this responsibility by realistic guidance programs in rural high schools is one way of helping prepare rural youth for adult life.

Then, too, it has been charged that rural schools have often educated boys and girls away from rural life. Some authorities believe the most able rural youth have been the ones who migrated to the cities. Certainly the attitudes developed in the schools toward rural living will influence the decisions the young rural adults must make. If the schools can develop understanding and appreciation of the values of rural life and point to the ways by which more secure rural living may be achieved, then in this way, too, they can prepare their pupils for adult life. The strength of rural society increasingly depends on the vision given rural youth of the possibilities of building satisfying rural family and community life.

The curriculum of rural schools, therefore, should be inclusive of rural problems and of rural institutions. It should deal honestly with the rural church, rural education, the organized groups in rural society, problems of health and medical care, soil conservation, farm economics, and the problems of tenant farmers and sharecroppers. Vocational agriculture and home-making courses are preparation for adult life, of course, but too often they are limited to specific skills and knowledge. The *social science* of rural life, as well as the *science* of farm life, must be developed if children in the rural schools today are to be effective rural leaders of tomorrow. It is not too much to hope that the schools may share in closing the wide gap between the possibilities of rural life and its realities today, by preparing citizens who know the realities, have a vision of

the best that rural life can be, and have courage and intelligence in solving problems.

3. The rural schools must extend understanding of the rural community to the larger world outside it, emphasizing the interdependence of modern living. Realistic study of rural community life will of necessity lead outward to the nation and the world. All opportunities for doing so are assets to be capitalized. The interdependence of all people in the world is one of the dominating facts of modern life. To develop understanding of it and of the kinds of behavior appropriate to it are among the major goals of modern education.

The rural schools can show the unity of interests of farmer and laborer, the ways in which rural and urban society are dependent one on the other, the relationship of prices farmers receive and those they pay, the influence of world markets on agricultural prosperity, the functions and effects of governmental policies and programs. The curriculum of the modern rural school will embrace the economic, social, and political processes at work in rural life—and these are world-wide in scope.

Fortunately, rural community life offers many paths by which the curriculum can lead outward to the larger world. Study of the processing and marketing of farm products and how they reach the ultimate consumers offers one example. Newspapers, magazines, the radio, and motion pictures can help bring to the school news of what is happening beyond the community.

4. Rural education should build loyalty to the moral and ethical values of democracy. Democracy is built on a system of moral and ethical values. These include belief in the worth and dignity of the human being, concern for the general welfare, the desirability of human happiness, the belief that free men can solve their problems by reason, and belief that the wisdom of many is greater and more trustworthy than the wisdom of one or of a few. These values furnish the perspective in which all schools must view their fundamental tasks. By exemplifying these values in its everyday life, and by providing active experiences in living according to them, the rural school can build abiding loyalty to them. Through intelligent study of the problems of government, economic relationships, and the problems of social living, the applications of these basic values of democracy in modern life can be made clear. Through inspiring

programs, informed discussion, and guided reading, the generation now passing through the rural schools can be awakened to a deep realization of the meaning and values of the democratic way of life and of its freedoms and of the responsibilities those freedoms imply for the individual.

5. Rural education should develop appreciation of beauty and nourish the creative spirit in children and youth. In rural life there is much of beauty. Much that is ugly need not be so. The useful and the aesthetic find unity in many ways in rural living. There is more than nutritional science and technical skill involved in preserving fruit; more than strength and skill goes into the shaping of a stack of hay. Wood carving, pottery making, rug weaving, and quilting are traditional rural arts. Much folk music is of rural origin, as are many folk dances. The rural setting itself is beautiful.

All this is not to argue for a return to primitive ways of doing things. It is, instead, to point up the responsibility of the school to provide experiences which will make for richer and happier living, and to sustain the living creative processes by which cultures are built. Much can be done in rural America to make farmsteads more attractive, more satisfying, more comfortable places for human living.

6. Rural education must accept new responsibilities for out-of-school groups. Groups in the rural population for whom expanded learning opportunities should be made available include older youth, adults, and children of pre-school age.

The results of all studies of rural children's needs have given high rank to the need for socializing experiences. This points to the need for parent education and for guidance during the pre-school years, during which a large part of personality development takes place. The extension of kindergarten opportunities is an important next step in rural schools. Provision for play activities for children of pre-school age is desirable, and can sometimes be arranged through co-operative school and parent planning.

In most rural communities the development of adult education programs is not well advanced. For older youth, vocational education in part-time and evening classes is needed, and this should include training in different kinds of work. Farming itself requires skill in many fields, such as carpentry, machine work, surveying,

and care of livestock. The farm housewife must also have many skills. The problems of management and planning require understanding of technical subjects and of agricultural economics. While the Agricultural Extension Service has made information concerning farm and home-making practices widely available, there remains an urgent need for group study and discussion of social, political, and economic problems. Recreational and aesthetic experiences, also, are needed.

So much for the six goals to govern curriculum development in modern rural schools. All of them are implied in the statement by Murray D. Lincoln at the 1944 White House Conference on Rural Education:

How does the school relate itself to the development of effective citizenship? I think it is fair to say that such a complex of attitudes and technics cannot be neatly packaged and dispensed by our rural educators, however lofty their ideals and energies. But that need not minimize the vital role which education can, and I believe must, play. I think it is not trite to say that we must educate for action. I think it is not unrealistic to say that we must relate education to life and life activities.

The school must generate in youth the broad and unselfish perspectives of national welfare and the common good. Too long have we been satisfied with the transmission of facts and skills. We have won the battle for better butter and beefsteak; let us win the battle for better humanity. Let us teach the indivisibility of human welfare.¹

Summary

Basic to progress in rural education are several steps which, together, may be termed "reconstruction" of rural schools. These include the reorganization of administrative units and provision for more adequate financial resources. Professionally educated administrative and supervisory staff members are needed. Standards for rural teaching must be raised. School buildings and equipment must be provided so that facilities for modern educational programs are available.

¹The White House Conference on Rural Education, 1944, *Proceedings*, p. 51. Used by permission of the National Education Association of the United States.

These readjustments in rural education will make possible the development of educational programs directed toward new goals. Rural schools must aim to improve the present living of the pupils, to prepare boys and girls for effective and responsible adult participation in community living, to extend their understanding to the world scene, to build loyalty to the moral and ethical values of democracy, to develop appreciation of beauty and stimulate the creative spirit, and to provide educative experiences for groups not in school.

Questions for Study and Discussion

1. Present a concise argument for the reorganization of school administrative units.
2. What advantages can come from consolidation of attendance units?
3. What cautions should be observed in consolidating attendance units?
4. Review ways in which more adequate financial support of rural education may be achieved.
5. List arguments favoring the extension of Federal financial aid to rural education.
6. What can be done to attract and hold better teachers in the rural schools?
7. What possible solutions are there to the problem of providing living quarters for rural teachers?
8. Discuss critically the six goals for modern rural schools which are presented in this chapter.
9. What experiences can the rural school provide to help children grow in appreciation of the beauty to be found in everyday life?
10. What can the individual rural teacher do to help bring about needed changes in rural education?

Activities

1. Teacher associations in almost every state have studied the problem of school district reorganization. Many such groups also have done research work in problems of school finance. Invite an officer of the association in your state to discuss with your class the research studies on these problems. Write also to the State Department of Education to find if there is published material on these problems in your state.
2. List other organizations in your state that might be interested in plans for reorganization of school units—groups like the Farm Bureau, the Grange, Rural Teachers Association chapters, and others. Discuss ways of giving such groups information on these problems.
3. Select a committee to lead a discussion on the question of financial aid to schools from the national government. Much material can be found in periodicals.
4. Secure and examine school materials prepared at the University of Kentucky, the University of Vermont, and the University of Florida in connection with the work of the Sloan Foundation; and materials prepared for use in rural schools under the Rosenwald Fund program. Write a report on one of them.

Bibliography

- Alford, Harold D., *Procedures for School District Reorganization*. New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1942.
- American Country Life Association, Committee on Rural Education, *Still Sits the Schoolhouse by the Road*. Chicago: The Committee, 1943.
- American Country Life Conference, *Proceedings of 24th Conference: Farm and Rural Life after the War*. Champaign, Ill.: The Garrard Press, 1944.
- Mort, Paul R., and Reusser, W. C., *Public School Finance*. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, 1941.

- National Education Association of the United States, Department of Rural Education, *A Policy for Rural Education in the United States*. Washington, D.C.: The Association, 1940.
- , *Rural Schools for Tomorrow: 1945 Yearbook*, edited by Julian E. Butterworks. Washington, D.C.: The Association, 1945.
- , *Your School District*, Report of the National Commission on School District Reorganization. Washington, D.C.: The Association, 1948.
- Olson, Clara M., and Fletcher, Norman D., *Learn and Live*. New York: Alfred P. Sloan Foundation, 1946.
- White House Conference on Rural Education, 1944, *Proceedings*. Washington, D.C.: National Education Association of the United States, 1945.

DAILY PROGRAMS FOR RURAL SCHOOLS

TWO DAILY PROGRAMS for one-teacher schools are suggested by the Tennessee State Department of Education. One program is for "informal" schools, and the other is for schools in transition from formal to informal teaching.

I. DAILY PROGRAM FOR INFORMAL ONE-TEACHER SCHOOLS¹

8:30-9:00. We Begin the Day

Children are greeted by teacher and a moment spent in friendly conversation. Wraps and lunches are put away and toilet needs cared for. Health conditions are noted informally by the teacher. A child with a cold or other symptoms of illness is requested to guard himself against eye-strain, over-exercise, or exposure. With right understanding he will protect others from infection.

Simple opening exercises by the children may follow. They may consist of Scripture reading, group singing, a poem, a story told or dramatized, and a news item read. Attendance is checked and the responsibility of writing notes to absentees and others is delegated to some group. Housekeeping duties are attended to and work plans made for the day. The opening exercises are presided over by the room chairman.

¹Tennessee State Department of Education, *Living and Learning in Small Rural Schools*, pp. 42-45. Nashville, Tenn.: State Department of Education, 1943. Reprinted by permission.

9:00-10:00. We Work Together

When each group knows what its task is, we go to work. Some measure, hammer, and saw. Others cut, paste, and sew. While others arrange material, paint, and draw.

All are participating; all are experiencing. All are sharing; all are living socially. At the close of the work period we put tools and materials in their places and clean up. We come together, sitting in a large circle on chairs and rug, to discuss any problems encountered in the work. We may need more skill in computation. We may need information. We may need expert advice. This period is short and to the point with careful notes taken.

10:00-10:30. We Play Together

Some time during the day, apart from the mid-day lunch period, one half hour of play is enjoyed by children and teacher (no "staying in" except in case of illness). It may occur in mid-morning or mid-afternoon, depending upon the activity of the work period.

Planned games and exercises are led by the teacher or an older pupil. Some time is allowed for free play on swings, seesaws, courts, etc. Variety is emphasized in all play and games. After play there is time for going to the toilet and washing hands. A light lunch, consisting of fruit, crackers and milk, or the like, is served. Sometimes we have this light nourishment before we play, depending upon the wishes of the group. The purpose of such planning is to take away the unhealthful "ball and biscuit" practice, a ball in one hand and a biscuit in the other.

10:30-12:00. We Master Skills

Reading. During the work period, or activity period, we encountered certain limitations and difficulties. Reading is usually the greatest need. Older children use social science reader, reference books, pamphlets, etc. to find information. Some reread favorite story to plan dramatization, etc. Younger children, with teacher, have group chart work and basic skills in reading, uninterrupted by others. After proper length periods with each, the teacher moves from one group to another to give help, advice, or approval.

Language. Letters, news items, records, reports are to be written. This involves spelling, writing, and language usage. Several periods each week are set aside for drill upon these skills, each to satisfy a need felt by the child.

12:00-12:45. We Eat and Rest

Children go to toilet, wash hands, and assemble for eating. Since arrangements do not allow all to sit at one table, children take weekly turns of being host or hostess at each table. Thanks for food may be sung by group or blessing asked by individual child. Pleasant conversation in natural tones is encouraged, with each child participating.

The latter part of the period is given to relaxation and rest. Young children may lie on tables, cots, rugs and mats on floor (depending upon season), or they may lay heads on desks for rest. Older children may prefer to read, pursue hobby, or listen to the radio or phonograph.

12:45-1:00. We Appreciate the Beautiful

This period includes all children and varies from day to day. A story or poem may be read, a radio program heard, music played on victrola, a picture studied. Children may sing; conduct rhythm band; plan, practice, or give dramatization. This period is transferred to eleven o'clock on Tuesdays and Thursdays so that the group may participate in the Tennessee Music Hour broadcast over Station WSM, Nashville.

At different times during the day, a child, upon completing a piece of work, may go to the easel to finish a picture he has begun. Others may read or sew. Wise use of time is stressed.

1:00 to 2:00. We Master Skills

Arithmetic. A great many times during the day we have had occasion to use arithmetic. Some have felt a need for the mastery of the fundamental processes. Two or three times each week the first ten or twelve minutes of this period is devoted to "quick drill" on addition, subtraction, multiplication, and division. The teacher may have lists of problems, ten to a group. She may read such combinations as 3 and 4, 7 and 8, 5 and 2, etc., allowing only time enough to write the answer, not time enough to "count up." When ten are read, answers are given. The child notes his errors and corrects them. He makes it his own responsibility to learn the correct answers. So on through the fundamentals.

The remainder of the arithmetic period is spent in solving problems. Each child advances at his own speed. The teacher moves from group

to group, spending the greatest amount of time with the primary group (second and third grades) on numbers. Older pupils may assist one another. No home work is assigned.

An extra reading period for first-year and second-year pupils is planned here.

2:00 to 2:15. We Play

It is absolutely necessary from the health standpoint to allow children recess during the afternoon session. A fifteen-minute period is given for toileting, washing, and playing. When the morning play period is shortened, this becomes the longer period.

2:15 to 3:15. We Learn about Other People

During the fall, the great interest may be scientific and will call for activity on grounds. In that case, the social studies—geography, history, and civics in various groupings—will become a part of the afternoon program. Elections are held and customs of other countries are observed. Later in the year the social studies may form the basis of the large unit or interest. Activities may be in painting friezes, costuming, modeling clay, making menus, and serving meals, all relating to the people who are being studied. This rich storehouse of experience and knowledge is never exhausted.

3:15 to 3:30. We Go Home

When initiating a new program, it is well to check with the children at the close of the day to call to mind that the reading of a story to be dramatized was the "reading lesson," that measuring the lumber was the "arithmetic lesson," etc. This will become the evaluation period, and satisfaction in work attempted and completed will result.

If some item of material or information is to be brought from home, a reminder may be dropped here. No lessons are to be prepared at home. (The hours at school plus the time in transit are often as long, or longer, than the laboring man's allowable hours.) Books are checked out to be taken home for recreational reading. Room is put in order. Wraps are gotten. Good-bys said.

The following program is planned as the first step in changing from the formal type to the informal type of teaching. Large blocks

proportioned to areas of work which are closely related.
language arts, social science, arithmetic, and co-operative

allowable. Time is sufficient for toileting, hand washing, and a light mid-morning lunch. Follow directions given in *Physical Education Manual for Elementary Schools*.

10:30 to 12:00. Social Science (1½ hours)

1. Geography 4th and 5th Combined (30 minutes).

The first year both study North American Geography, the one listed for the 5th grade. The following year study the one listed for the 4th grade, *The Other Lands*.

2. History and Geography 6th, 7th, and 8th (30 minutes).

To cut down on the number of classes and to have more children in each group, the 6th, 7th, and 8th study geography and history together. During the first year of the plan all three groups study the history designated for the 8th grade, *Tennessee History*. Although no geography text is assigned for the 8th grade, this will be an opportune time to teach and learn the geography of Tennessee. This may be taken as part of the history study. This, too, is the year for the study of the Constitution and Civics.

The second year of the plan, all three grades will study geography and history. Both of these will be the courses selected for the 7th grade or the Geography of the United States and the History of the United States. These may be combined to institute one class or two.

During the third year, courses in geography and history outlined for the 6th grade will be used or the geography and history of Europe. Suggestions as above may be followed.

3. Health, Conservation, and Science (30 minutes).

During the first half of the year, pupil health is vital. Therefore, specific study is important. This is an all-school activity, each gathering and sharing information and help on his own level. When certain learnings (determined by needs) have been gained, the health program is carried on in general practice and by daily inspection.

During the latter half of the year, this period is used for the study of Science and Conservation. These, too, are all-school activities.

12:00 to 1:00. Lunch and Rest Period (1 hour)

Toilet—Handwashing—Lunch—Rest—Appreciation. The time following lunch is for rest and relaxation. The younger children may wish to lie down for naps. The older ones read, listen to a story or poem, play restful music on the radio or victrola, or pursue hobbies.

1:00 to 2:00. Arithmetic Period (1 hour)

1. Arithmetic exercises and drills for all grades, each pupil working at his own rate and level. Special training in processes and problems arising in the social studies unit of the afternoon before.
2. Extra reading period for beginners. Free reading for others.

2:00 to 2:15. Supervised Play Period ($\frac{1}{4}$ hour)

Games—short excursions on nature trail or to bird sanctuary—Toilet—Drink.

2:15 to 3:15. Co-operative Activities (1 hour)

This is the part of the day where emphasis is focused upon the pattern of democratic group living—the group purposes, plans, executes, and evaluates—and in the light of this, further purposing and planning take place. The tools of learning will be used in the development of any such experience, which, in turn, provide for functional use of the various skills. During a year, this period may be used in a great variety of ways. For example, when school first opens, this period for many days may be used in getting the grounds, building, and classroom in desired shape. As this progresses, interest is being built up for the basic social “Unit” or “Center of Interest” into which the group goes very naturally. Again, at a time like Christmas, the group may decide to lay aside work on this major topic, and spend the ten days just prior to Christmas on special holiday preparations. (No teaching can justify spending more than one week cutting black cats for Halloween or hearts for Valentine.) It is entirely possible and most desirable that the unit be one that provides phases suitable to the interest and ability of each group in any classroom. However, some teachers have found it desirable to carry on two major studies—one for the primary group and another for the upper grade group. Regardless of the number of the topics or nature of the work going on, this period should be thought of in at least two parts:

1. Work period—the part of the period when pupils are going forward with the work they have planned.
2. Conference period—the part of the period when groups or individuals report on what they have accomplished (evaluation) or ask help on problems encountered.

3:15 to 3:30. Clean-up Period ($\frac{1}{4}$ hour)

This time is spent in replacing tools and materials and getting ready to go home. Books for recreational reading may be checked out. No "home work" is assigned. Review work-plan for next day.

The program which follows is suitable for schools in which grade lines and grade standards in the school subjects are not emphasized, and in which not more than 10 or 12 children are enrolled.

III. A MORE FLEXIBLE PROGRAM FOR ONE-TEACHER SCHOOLS¹

9:00-10:15

Opening Period—
General planning,
and immediate
environment leads

Opening exercises, checking attendance, informal observation of health and personal care habits. Discussion of news heard on radio, community news, things brought to school, newspaper reports, the weather, etc. Planning for the day's work, for excursions, for future projects, for club work, for individual needs, etc.

10:15-10:30

Group Play Period,
Morning Lunch

Light nourishment, as milk and graham crackers; supervised play with all children in one group many of these periods.

10:30-12:00

Group Unit
Activities

School organized in three groups—
Primary Group: School Unit, Home Unit.
Intermediate Group: The Community, the State, the Nation.
Advanced Group: World Relationships.
(Exact limits on units and plans for alternation to be determined by course of study requirements, and by teacher-pupil planning.)

12:00-1:00

Lunch and Play
Period

Lunch (hot lunch in cold weather, at least). Rest period for younger children, quiet play or hobby period for older children.

¹Developed by Hazel Olson, Assistant Professor of Elementary Education, University of Wyoming.

1:00-2:15

Individual

Development Period

Necessary developmental teaching of skills, needed drill and practice, individual guidance. Much of the work of this period should grow out of the unit activity period, and relate back to it—as, for example, learning about writing letters when children need to write for information on some topic.

2:15-2:30

Group Play Period

Active play.

2:30-3:30

Appreciation

Period

Appreciations to be developed in connection with unit activities at times, at other times independently of unit. There is much in music, art, and literature to be loved for its own sake without any connection with any unit.

Note. Younger children may be dismissed earlier than others before the lunch period, and in the afternoon. Or, if they must wait for older brothers and sisters, they may play at outdoor activities in good weather; and at a play center in the schoolroom when weather is bad.

In one-teacher schools with as many as 25 or more children enrolled, the daily program must necessarily be somewhat more definitely divided into periods for teacher guidance of specific groups. A program of this type, yet one providing a framework for modern curriculum methods, is suggested in Julia Weber's book, *My Country School Diary*.¹

¹Julia Weber, *My Country School Diary*, p. 118. Reprinted by permission of Harper and Brothers, publishers.

IV. DAILY PROGRAM FOR ONE-TEACHER SCHOOLS WITH 25 OR MORE PUPILS

	Monday	Tuesday	Wednesday	Thursday	Friday
8:55-9:05	Plan together the day's work.				
9:05-9:20	<i>Social Studies and Science.</i> Teacher works with little children on social studies, science, and health. (Upper group study for social studies or do activities in connection with it.)				
9:20-10:00	Teacher works with older children on social studies and science. (Little children continue work planned with teacher the previous period. For the last 20 minutes, or when their work is done, they paint, play with clay, play in their play corner, or read.)				
10:00-10:20	<i>Physical Education.</i> Teacher plays with the little children. (Older children play alone with the president in charge.)				
10:20-10:35	<i>Reading.</i> Teacher works with five- and six-year-olds. (All others read.)				
10:35-10:50	Teacher works with Group II. (All others read.)				
10:50-11:10	Group III with teacher	Group IV	Group III	Group IV	Discussion of current events
11:10-11:30	Group V with teacher	Group VI	Group V	Group VI	

(As the little children finish the seatwork after the time spent with the teacher, they continue the kinds of activities they had in the morning. As the older children finish their reading, they read for the health, science, and current events discussions and write up discussions and problems in their notebooks. This is planned carefully each morning.)

	Monday	Tuesday	Wednesday	Thursday	Friday
11:30-12:00	<i>Health</i> Teacher with upper group. (Little children read and tell stories to each other with an older child in charge. Also dramatize.)	<i>English</i>	<i>Ari</i>	<i>Story Hour</i> Teacher with little ones. (Older group, study English.)	<i>Library</i> All read and share experiences.
1:00-1:15	Rest.				
1:15-1:30	<i>Music</i> Teacher with little ones.	Teacher with older ones. (Little ones sing with an older child.)	Teacher with little ones. Rhythms.	Teacher with older ones. (Little ones sing with an older child.)	Teacher with little ones.
1:30-2:05	<i>Drill.</i> Teacher with little children. (Older children work on individual needs and work started during the reading period.)				
2:05-2:20	<i>Physical Education.</i> Teacher with older children. Little children go home at 2:05.				
2:20-3:20	<i>Drill.</i> Teacher works with older children on spelling, arithmetic, and writing. Mainly individual work. Children come together in small groups for supervised study of spelling and for new work in arithmetic.				
3:20-3:30	<i>Clean-up.</i> The Helpers' Club Meeting is usually held on Thursday at 3:20, although it is frequently necessary to change this to fit in with our other plans.				

Making the daily program is less of a problem in the two-teacher school, yet even in each room of such a school the teacher has many responsibilities, and she must budget the school time carefully. The two programs presented here—the one for the upper-grade room and the other for the lower-grade room of a two-teacher school—embody the modern viewpoint on school living.

V. TWO PROGRAMS FOR A TWO-TEACHER SCHOOL¹

UPPER-GRADE ROOM

9:00–9:30

Opening Exercises,
Group Planning,
etc.

Informal opening exercises, perhaps planned and led by children. Checking attendance and informal checking of health and personal care habits. Sharing experiences, as oral reading of a good book; discussion of world, national, and local news; sharing things brought to school. Planning for the school day, with children developing their own time budgets.

9:30–10:30

Social Studies
Units

On most days, arrange as follows: 9:30–10:00—Teacher work with Group I (Grades 5 and 6) while Group II studies or develops unit activities.

10:00–10:30—Teacher work with Group II (Grades 7 and 8) while Group I carries on work planned in first part of period.

10:30–10:50

Physical Education
and Morning Lunch

Co-operatively planned play activities, and light nourishment, as milk or fruit juice and graham crackers or cookies.

10:50–12:00

Language Arts

No definite division of this period is suggested. In reading, children may be grouped in two groups in terms of reading needs rather than by

¹Developed in rural teacher education courses at the University of Wyoming.

grade lines. Much of the reading, oral and written composition, spelling, and writing work will grow out of the needs of the social studies period. It will be necessary to schedule some periods for developmental teaching of specific skills, and for practice and drill work, when the need for such work is evident.

12:00-1:00

Lunch Hour

Lunch, teaching of health habits and courtesy; clean-up work; quiet play.

1:00-1:40

Arithmetic

Chiefly individual work, though there will be periods with different grades for developmental teaching of new work, for review testing, for drill, and for arithmetic activities.

1:40-2:30

Appreciation Period

Library reading, art, and music will come during this period. The teacher may wish to divide the period for art and music three days a week; and use the whole period for library reading the other two days. At times, the whole period may be used for art or music. The reading done during this period is chiefly recreational reading, but there will be opportunities to teach skills as well as to build reading interests and tastes.

2:30-2:45

Recess;

Play Period

Free play activities; toilet needs; drinks.

2:45-3:30

Science

This period should be rich in experiences dealing with the science found in everyday life activities. Thus, there will be study of agriculture, of home-making work, of nutrition, of hygiene, etc. This period is scheduled for the last hour of the day since it leads easily into after-school activities, such as the Forestry Club, or Gardening Club, which may be scheduled for one day a week or oftener if leaders are available.

For the lower-grade room of a two-teacher school, the following program provides a balanced day.

LOWER-GRADE ROOM

- 9:00-9:30
Opening Period,
Group Planning
- Informal opening exercises such as Pledge to the Flag, singing, sharing an interesting book. Teacher checks attendance and observes health and personal care habits. Sharing of news and of things brought from home. Planning for the day.
- 9:20-10:20
Reading
- Organize in only three groups, if possible.
9:20-9:40. Teacher work with Group I. (Groups II and III study, do seatwork, read library books.)
9:40-10:00. Teacher work with Group II. (Group I does seatwork from lesson, Group III continues as before.)
10:00-10:20. Teacher work with Group III. (Groups I and II continue as before.) As younger children finish, they paint at easels, work with clay, use library table, etc. (Teacher may vary order in which she works with groups, at times.)
- 10:20-10:40
Play and Morning
Lunch Period
- Supervised group play; light nourishment.
- 10:40-11:30
Social Studies
and Unit Work
- All four grades may work together, or may work in two groups with teacher working first with one, then with the other. Seatwork, activities growing out of units, and study for children not working with the teacher.
- 11:30-12:00
Arts and Crafts
- Much art and construction work will grow out of the social studies units. There must also be

periods for genuine art expression, not necessarily relating to unit work.

12:00-1:00

Lunch and
Rest Hour

Lunch; naps for younger children. Quiet play or listening activities for older ones.

1:00-1:15

Music

Music for all in one group.

1:15-1:45

Reading and
Language Arts

Group I requires a second reading period each day, at this time. Groups II, III may have developmental reading or expression lessons, and dramatization. Group I may sometimes do language work, as making chart stories. All will have guided library period some days.

1:45-2:30

Drill Period

Arithmetic, spelling, writing. Use this period flexibly. Individualize much of the work. Group for new teaching as needed, rather than by grade lines.

2:30-2:50

Play Period

Group play, with all children remaining for it. Beginners are dismissed at end of this play period, or use play materials if they must wait for older children or for school bus.

2:50-3:20

Science Units

Science, including health and nature study experiences. Much oral and written expression in these units for all children.

PLANS FOR RURAL SCHOOL BUILDINGS

THE IMPORTANCE OF the school plant has been stressed in several chapters. To give teachers and others interested in rural schools some idea of what modern rural school buildings are like, a few building plans are presented here. No attempt has been made to give detailed building specifications.

1. The suggested arrangement for a California school shown on page 268 is an example of a simple one-room school of attractive architectural design. Indoor toilets, kitchen facilities, and ample bulletin-board space are provided. (Plan reproduced by courtesy of the California State Department of Education)
2. The neighborhood type of school shown on page 269 is believed to be the answer to overcrowding. It has a kindergarten, three classrooms, an office, and a nurse's room. The kindergarten has a kitchen and can serve as a meeting place for the parent-teacher group. (Reproduced by permission of James E. Pease, Superintendent of Schools, La Grange, Illinois)
3. The plan on page 270 is for a three-room school, with a fourth room for community use and with kitchen facilities. This could serve as the lunch room, also. (Reproduced from *Community School Plans*, October, 1944, by courtesy of the Interstate School Building Service George Peabody College for Teachers, Nashville, Tenn.)

4. The plan on page 271 is for a six-room rural school. It provides six classrooms, a library and lunch room, a clinic, and an assembly room. (Reproduced from *Community School Plans*, October, 1944, by courtesy of the Interstate School Building Service, George Peabody College for Teachers, Nashville, Tenn.)

THE RURAL SCHOOL PLANT

A Selected Bibliography

American Association of School Administrators, *American School Buildings: Twenty-seventh Yearbook*, edited by Hazel Davis. Washington, D. C.: The Association, 1949.

—, *Schools in Small Communities: Seventeenth Yearbook*. Washington, D. C.: The Association, 1939.

American School and University: A Yearbook Devoted to the Design, Construction, Equipment, and Maintenance of Educational Buildings and Grounds. New York: American School Publishing Corporation.

Broady, Knute O., and Stoneman, M. A., "Planning Small Twelve-Grade School Buildings for Multiple Service," Vol. 12, 1940, pp. 51-53.

Bursch, Charles W., and Early, Doyt, "The Planning and Maintenance of Rural Schools," Vol. 11, 1939, pp. 24-30.

Schmidt, Hans W., "Better Rural School Buildings," Vol. 12, 1940, pp. 36-42.

Seagers, Paul W., "Germicidal Lighting for Schools and Universities," Vol. 18, 1946, pp. 225-230.

Booker, Ivan A., "Seven Desirable Goals for Rural School Systems," *The Nation's Schools*, 27:53, March, 1941.

Brownell, Samuel M., "How to Gain Community Support for Post-war Building," *The Nation's Schools*, 34:23, September, 1944.

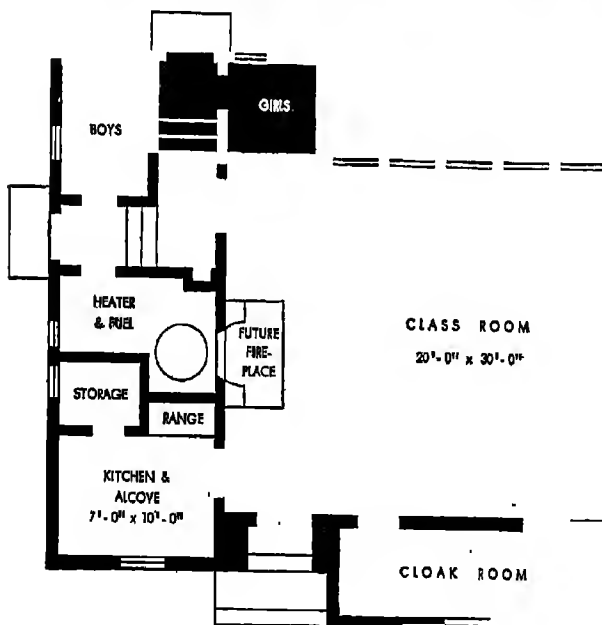
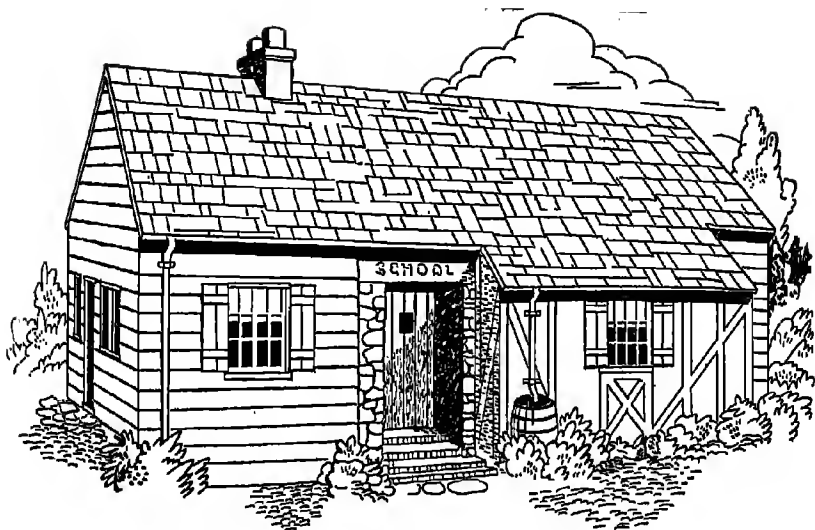
Bursch, Charles W., and Reid, John L., *You Want to Build a School?* New York: Reinhold Publishing Corporation, 1947.

Cherry, Ralph W., "Small Schools," *The School Executive*, 68:40-41, January, 1949.

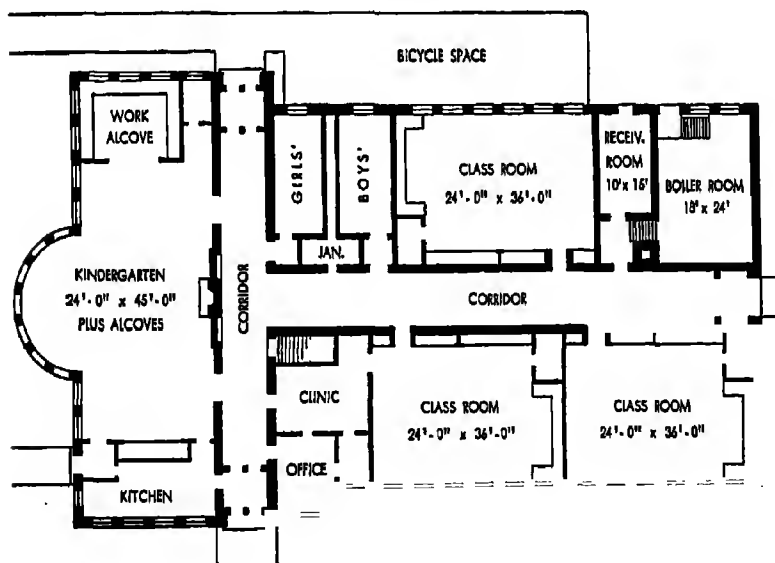
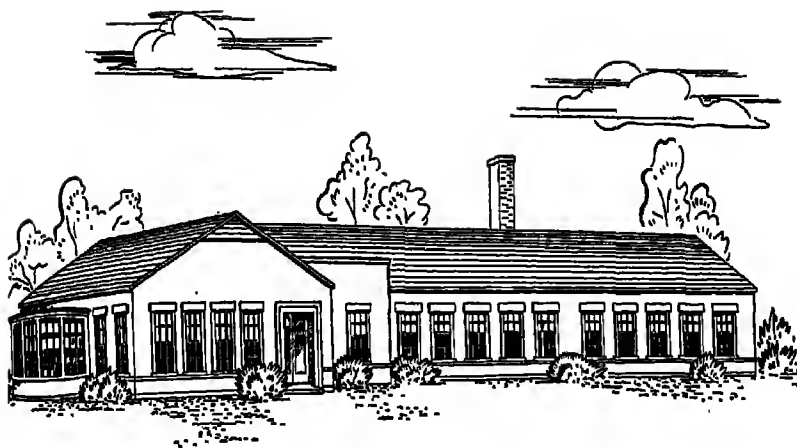
Educational Policies Commission, *Educational Policies for Rural America*. Washington, D. C.: National Education Association of the United States, 1939.

- Engelhardt, Nickolaus L., "Planning Distinctive American Schools," *The School Executive*, 65:77-78, April, 1946.
- Engelhardt, N. L., and Engelhardt, N. L., Jr., *Planning the Community School*. New York: American Book Company, 1940.
- Essex, Don L., "Planning the Central Rural School as a Community Center," *American School Board Journal*, 110:47-48, May, 1945.
- Evans, Frank O., "Building for the Small Elementary School," *American School Board Journal*, 104:27-28, January, 1942.
- Fulmer, Henry L., *An Analytical Study of a Rural School Area*, South Carolina Agricultural Experiment Station, Bulletin 320. Clemson, S. C.: Clemson College, June, 1939.
- , *A Rural Area in South Central South Carolina*, South Carolina Agricultural Experiment Station, Bulletin 325. Clemson, S. C.: Clemson College, March, 1940.
- Grieder, Calvin, "Colorado Universities and Colleges Form Personnel Pool for School Planning," *American School Board Journal*, 111:35-36, September, 1945.
- , "Colorado's Open Door Policy," *The School Executive*, 61:21-22, August, 1942.
- Harmon, Darell B., "Light on Growing Children," *The Architectural Record*, 99:78-90, February, 1946.
- Hooper, Laura, "Give Me a Barn," *Childhood Education*, 18:396-397, May, 1942.
- Kansas State Teachers College, *School Buildings, Grounds, and Equipment for Elementary Schools in Small School Systems*, Bulletin No. 7, Vol. 4. Pittsburg, Kans.: Kansas State Teachers College, 1948.
- Kilham, Walter H., Jr., "A School for a Country Site," *The School Executive*, 66:41-43, April, 1947.
- Leggett, Stanton, "The Community School," *The School Executive*, 68:44-45, January, 1949.
- Marshall, J. E., "Community Participation in Planning," *The School Executive*, 67:41, December, 1947.
- National Conference on Facilities for Athletics, Recreation, Health and Physical Education, *A Guide for Planning Facilities for Athletics, Recreation, Physical and Health Education*. Chicago: The Athletic Institute, 1947.
- National Council on Schoolhouse Construction, *Guide for Planning School Plants*. Nashville, Tenn.: The Council, 1946.
- National Society for the Study of Education, *Forty-fifth Yearbook*, Part II: *Changing Conceptions in Educational Administration*. Chi-

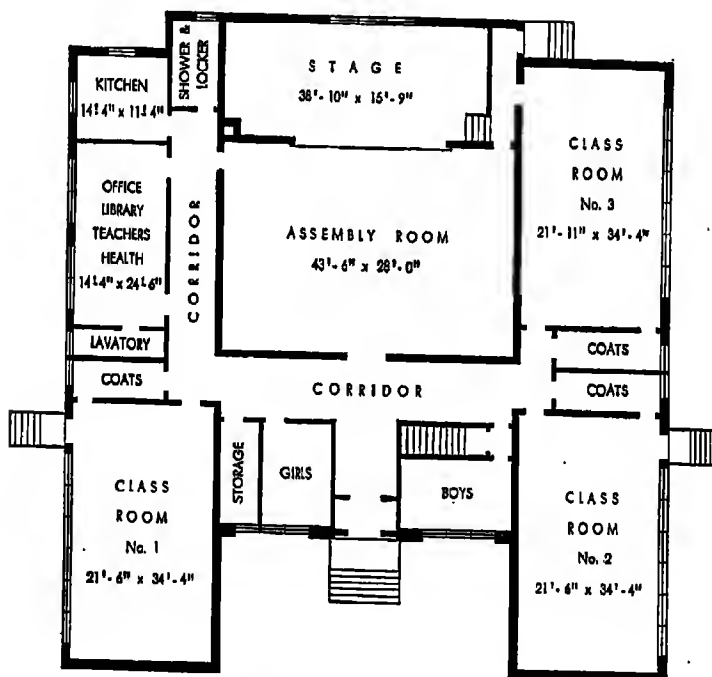
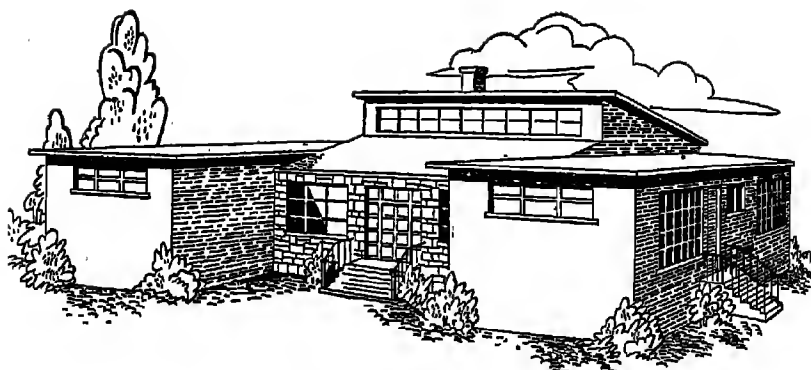
- cago: The University of Chicago Press, 1946. See "Providing Appropriate Housing for Schools" by Charles W. Bursch, pp. 161-175.
- New York State Department of Education, Division of School Buildings and Grounds, *Designing the Central School Plant as a Community Center*. Albany: State Department of Education, 1945.
- Nichols, John E., "Planning Small Town and Rural Schools," *Childhood Education*, 22:296-300, February, 1946.
- "Planning the Modern Small School," *Rural Electrification News*, 13:6-7, October, 1947.
- Post, E. Everett, "From an Architect's Notebook—The Rural Elementary School," *The School Executive*, 68:31-33, December, 1948.
- "Rural Children Need Modern Schools," *Rural Electrification News*, 13:4-5, October, 1947.
- Sykes, Earl F., "How a Rural School Can Be Made a Model Workshop," *The Nation's Schools*, 27:20-22, March, 1941.
- Thompson, George R., "Fitting the Modern School into the American Village," *School Management*, 2:132-133, January, 1942.
- United States Office of Education, *Lighting Schoolrooms*, Pamphlet No. 104. Washington, D. C.: Government Printing Office, 1948.
- Wanamaker, Pearl A., "Washington Encourages Master Planning," *The Nation's Schools*, 40:48, August, 1947.
- Wood, J. B., "Farewell, Little Red Schoolhouse," *The Nation's Business*, 36:36-38, March, 1948.



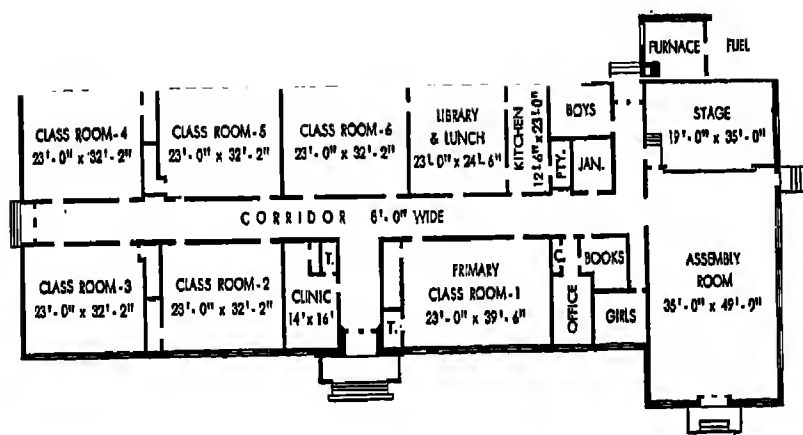
WILDER SCHOOL DISTRICT
Humboldt County, California



NEIGHBORHOOD SCHOOL
La Grange, Illinois



COMMON SCHOOL DISTRICT No. 2
Harrietstown, N. Y.



COMMUNITY SCHOOL PLAN No. 65
Interstate School Building Service.

INDEX

- Abilities of children considered, 66
Achievement tests, 101, 105-107, 119
Activities, basic instructional, 179
Activity, guide to behavior, 56-57
 natural to children, 58
Administrative records and reports, 123-124
Administrative units, conditions which influence, 177, 230
 defined, 10-11
 reorganizing, 200, 229-238
Adult education programs, 155, 243-244
Affection needed by children, 60
Age norms, 105, 106
Agricultural Extension Service, 31, 166, 220, 224, 244
Agricultural Revolution, 21
Alford, Harold D., on state-aid funds, 235
All-school projects, 49, 85-87
Alternating grades, 84-85
Alternating subjects, 85
American Library Association, 164
Anecdotal records, 109-110, 120
Approval needed by children, 60-61
Arts and crafts work, 80, 179, 186, 220, 243
Attendance laws, 49
Attendance records and reports, 78, 123-124
Attendance units, 10, 177, 231-233
Audio-visual aids, 160, 167-172, 237, 242
Autobiography form, 117-119

Baldwin, Bird T., 41
Basic school supplies, 159-166
Behavior motivation, 63-64
Benedict, Agnes E., quoted, 42, 43
Birth statistics, 23, 28, 29

Blackboards, 187
Bookmobiles, 163, 180, 224, 238
Books, a basic supply, 159-166
 ordering early, 80
Boy Scouts, 50, 220, 222
Building needs, 81
Building plans, 264-271
Bulletin board, 82, 167, 168, 170, 187

Child behavior, anecdotal records of, 109-110
 guidance of, 64-71
 understanding, 55-64
Child development, favored by rural life, 39-42
 retarded by rural life, 42-48
Child growth, characteristics of, 58-64
 evaluating, 96-110
 measuring, 96-98
 reflected on report card, 126-133
Child guidance, clinics for, 45
 health records for, 123
Child labor, 10, 44-45, 49
Child-welfare agencies, 45-46, 48-49
Clinton, Ione L., quoted, 47
Collections for school museum, 171-172
Combining and alternating grades, 84-85, 88
Combining and alternating subjects, 85
Communicable diseases, controlling, 147-149
Community, a changing social unit, 198-201
 excursions into, 221
 health programs for, 153-156
 relation to school, 7-10, 20, 195-198, 209, 217-225
 role of school in, 16, 201-205
 role of teacher in, 17, 202-205, 217-218

- Community (*continued*)
 studying, 76, 209-217, 225
 use of school facilities by, 162-166,
 178-179, 222, 238
 using resources of, 48-49, 219-223
 Community-school projects, 48, 180-
 182, 222-225
 Community-school relations, 8-10, 16,
 20, 48, 195-198, 209, 217-225
 Conferences, teacher-parent, 66, 70,
 121-122, 132, 133, 145
 teacher-pupil, 69-70, 120-121, 190
 Conservation measures, 32, 237
 Consolidated schools, 7, 78, 199, 200,
 232-233
 Co-operative enterprises, 30-31
 Co-operative film library, 170
 Course of study, 78-79, 84-85, 122
 new goals for, 238-244
 Cumulative records, 102, 116-123
 Curriculum, new goals for, 238-244
 social-studies, 85, 241
 Curriculum records, 122
- Daily planning, 88-91
 Daily programs, 83-88, 249-263
 De Boer, L., on supervision, 13-14
 Democracy, values of, 242-243
 Democratic principles in education,
 3-5, 15-18, 57-58, 204, 230-231,
 234, 235, 238-244
 D'Evelyn, Katherine E., quoted, 121
 Diagnostic tests, 101, 107, 119
 Differences in children, 62-63, 100,
 106, 128, 133
 Discipline, maintaining, 64-71
 problems of, 55-64
 related to goals, 55-58
 Dunn, Fannie, quoted, 8
- Economic position of farmers, 32-33
 Education, a social process, 3
 ideas as to purpose of, 202-205
 in a democracy, 3-5, 14-18, 57-58,
 204
 new goals of, 238-244
 of teacher, 12-13, 50, 235-236
 Educational philosophy, trend in, 202-
 205
 Educational Policies Commission,
 quoted, 57-58
- Environment, influence of, 7-8, 39-48,
 195-201
 Equipment, checking and ordering, 76,
 79-81, 147, 149, 150, 164-165,
 167-172, 242
 for playground, 149
 for school lunch, 145-147
 Erosion of land, 23-24
 Essay-type tests, 96, 102, 108
 Evaluation, guideposts to, 110-111
 instruments and procedures for, 101-
 110
 purpose of, 102
 recording results of, 119-120
 related to objectives, 98-99
 when valid, 102-103
- Fair Labor Standards Act, 45
 Family, rural, 9, 40
 Farm Bureau, 30, 155
 Farm homes, 28-29, 76
 Farm mortgages, 28
 Farm Security Administration, 29
 Farm tenancy, 27-28, 33
 Farmers' Educational and Co-opera-
 tive Union, 30
 Farmers' organizations, 30
 Farming, changing nature of, 20-23,
 199
 importance to nation, 23-24
 Farms, types of, 24-27
 Federal aid, to rural people, 25, 31-
 33, 46
 to schools, 15, 146, 177-178, 235
 Financial support of schools, 11-12,
 15, 177, 233-235
 First day of school, 65, 81-83
 First-aid kit, 150
 Flexibility, of curriculum, 63, 79, 84,
 86-88, 122, 237
 of room arrangement, 183-187
 4-H Clubs, 31, 50, 220, 222
 Freedom needed by children, 57, 61-62
 Fullerton, Charles A., music plan, 169
 Future Farmers of America, 50
- Girl Scouts, 50, 220, 222
 Government aid, *see* Federal aid
 Government bulletins, 166, 220
 Government units that aid teacher,
 210, 220

- Grade norms, 105, 106
 Greenshields, Elco, quoted, 25
 Group discussions, 67-68, 82, 101
 Group projects, 49, 56, 61-68, 83-84, 160-161, 185-190, 216-217, 222-225
 Grouping grades and subjects, 84-85
 Guidance, 45, 61-71, 91, 98, 102, 116-123, 241
 Guidance records, 116-123
- Harmon, Darell B., on schoolroom lighting, 141
 Hatcher, Latham, quoted, 104, 151
 Health measures, 29-30, 150-156, 238
 Health of rural people, 29-30, 42, 137
 Health records, 78, 123, 153
 Health services, 29-30, 45-46, 147-148, 151-152, 154-156, 180, 222
 Healthful school living, 138-152
 Heating the schoolroom, 138-140
 High schools, 238, 241
 Holtville (Alabama) school, 240
 Homes, reached by health programs, 153-156
 reporting to, 126-133
 types of, 28-29, 76, 153
 Homestead Act, 31
 Homework, 49
 Housekeeping routines, caring for, 57, 81, 91, 139-140, 144-147, 187-190, 222
 Human relations problem, 240
- Immunization clinics, 147-148, 222
 Individual record folder, 116-123, 125-126
 Individualized guidance, 62-63
 Industrial Revolution, 20-23
 Infectious diseases, controlling, 147-149
 In-service teacher education, 14, 17, 236
 Instructional supplies, 79-81, 159-167
 Instructional units, 49
 Integrated units of work, 85-86, 160-161
 Intelligence quotient (I.Q.), 103, 104, 119
 Intelligence tests, 97-101, 103-105, 119
- Interests of children considered, 66
 Inter-school activities, 49-50
 Inter-school use of equipment, 170, 172
 Interviewing local people, 210
 Inventories, of equipment, 79-80, 124
 personality, 107, 119
 Isolated children, educating, 14
- Jefferson, Thomas, 20-21
- Kellogg Foundation, 142
 Kentucky mountain schools, 239
 Kraft, Mary R., quoted, 130-131
- Land, basic resource of nation, 23-24
 conservation of, 32, 237
 erosion of, 23-24
 Land Grant Colleges and Universities, 31
 Landscaping school grounds, 179, 223, 238
 Larson, Eva H., quoted, 180-182
 Learning, related to living, 196-198
 Learning activities, evaluating, 99-100, 106
 group, 49
 guiding, 102
 meaningful, 67, 126, 218
 planned by children, 67, 240
 suited to children, 59, 66
 Learning experience records, 122
 Letter-type reports, 130-133
 Library facilities, 82, 162-166, 224
 Library services, mobile units for, 163, 180
 Lighting the schoolroom, 140-142
 Lincoln, Murray D., quoted, 244
 Living arrangements for teacher, 13, 15, 77-78, 179, 236, 237
 Living conditions, improving, 239-241
 Long, R. B., on seating arrangements, 183
 Lunch period, 144-147, 155, 189, 222
- Magazines, 163-164, 242
 Maps, 171
 Marking systems, 128-129
 Measurement, of child growth, 96-98
 of room lighting, 140-141

- Medical care of rural pupils, 29-30
 Migrating families, 31, 46-48, 59, 241
 Mobile units for special services, 163,
 179-180, 224, 238
 Models for the museum, 171-172
 Moley, Raymond, quoted, 25
 Money, keeping record of, 124, 188
 Montana correspondence courses, 14
 Moore, Arthur, quoted, 21
 Morgan, Arthur E., quoted, 198
 Motion pictures, 7, 160, 170-171, 242
 Motivation patterns of behavior, 63-
 64
 Mott, Dr. F. D., quoted, 29-30
 Museum, school project, 171-172
 Music teaching, 169
- National Education Association of the
 United States, quoted, 234
 National Grange, 30
 National Safety Council, 149, 160
 New Deal, 32
 New Jersey supervision, 14
 Newspapers, 7, 242
- Objectives, basis for evaluation, 98-99
 for elementary education, 127
 Objective-type tests, 96, 97, 102, 108
 Ohio Farm Bureau Co-operative As-
 sociation, 31
 Olson, Hazel, quoted, 256-257
 One-teacher schools, 6, 7, 9, 12, 13,
 40, 115, 166, 179, 186, 205, 232,
 237, 238
 building plan for, 268
 daily programs for, 249-259
 Otto, Henry J., quoted, 176-177
 Out-of-school groups, 179, 239, 243-
 244
- Parents, reporting to, 126-133
 Parent-Teacher Association, 152
 Parent-teacher conferences, 70, 121-
 122
 Park-school concept, 179
 Periodicals, 159, 163-164, 242
 Personality differences, 62-63
 Personality inventories and scales, 107
 Personality needs of children, 59-64,
 218
- Peterson, Lillian L., quoted, 87
 Philosophy of education, reflected in
 planning, 74-75
 reflected on report card, 126-133
 Phonograph, 169
 Physical examinations, 151-153
 Pictures, 169-171
 Planning school plant, 175-180
 Planning school work, 65, 74-92
 Play experiences needed by children,
 42-43, 49-50
 Playground, 67-68, 149, 182-183
 Policy for rural America, 33
 Polson, Robert A., quoted, 223
 Population trends, 22-23
 Projectors, types of, 170
 Public opinion, educating, 178
- Radio, 7, 167-169, 242
 Reading-readiness tests, 107
 Record folder, individual, 116-123
 Records, administrative, 123-124
 anecdotal, 109-110, 120
 consulting, 78
 cumulative, 102, 116-123
 guidance, 116-123
 health, 78, 123, 153
 individual, 116-123, 125-126
 kept by pupils, 117-119, 125-126
 need of, 114-116
 of conferences, 120-122
 simple, 114-116, 121
 studied by teacher, 78-79
 Recreation needs of community, 179
 Reference books, 165
 Report cards, 126-133, 219
 Reports, administrative, 123-124
 kept simple, 114-116, 121-122
 letter-type, 130-132
 to home, 126-133
 Roosevelt, Franklin D., quoted, 233
 Rosenwald Foundation, 155-156, 240
 Routine activities, 81, 187-190
 Rural birth statistics, 23, 28, 29
 Rural Electrification Administration,
 29, 140
 Rural environment, assets of, 39-42,
 48, 200-201
 defects of, 42-48, 200-201
 influence of, 7-8, 39-48, 195-201
 Rural health, 29-30, 42, 137

- Rural housing, 28-29, 76, 153
 Rural life, changes in, 20-23, 195-201, 230-231
 Rural population, defined, 7, 22
 statistics of, 6, 22-23
 Rural schools, advantages of, 7-10, 15-17
 building plans for, 264-271
 defined, 7
 disadvantages of, 10-14
 how financed, 11-12, 15, 177-178, 233-235
 programs for, 249-263
 statistics of, 5-7, 232
 Rural social problems, 24-33
 Rural social units, 198-201
 Rural supervision, 13-14, 236-237
- Safety measures, 138-139, 147, 149-150, 186, 189, 223, 238
 Salaries of teachers, 11-13, 235, 236
 Sanderson, Dwight, quoted, 223
 Saucier, W. A., quoted, 103-104
 School, equipment of, 79-81, 147
 health problems of, 147-149
 role in community, 8, 197, 201-205, 209
 School furniture, 183-187
 School housekeeping, lunch period, 144-147, 189, 222
 management of, 81, 187-190
 School library, 162-167, 224
 School lunch, 144-147, 155, 189, 222
 School grounds, 179, 182-183, 223, 238
 School museum, 171-172
 School officials, consulting, 76-77, 80, 146
 School plant, checking, 80-81, 142
 community use of, 162-166, 178-179, 222, 238
 financing, 11-12, 15, 177-178, 233-235
 improving, 175-187, 237-238
 plans for, 264-271
 School-community co-operation, 222-223
 School-community projects, 49, 145-146, 171, 222-225
 Schoolroom, appearance of, 65, 187
 arrangement of, 185-187
 health conditions of, 68-69, 138-152, 238
 heating of, 138-140
 lighting of, 140-142
 safety measures in, 138-139, 147, 149-150, 186, 189, 223, 238
 ventilation of, 140
 Schools, *see* Rural schools
 Seating arrangement, 68, 82, 141, 183-184
 Security needs of children, 59-60
 Self-evaluation, 101, 125-126, 133
 Service club, 81, 187-188
 Sewing projects, 186
 Sloan Foundation, 155-156, 239
 Small schools, advantages of, 7-10, 16, 115, 122
 as community center, 238
 daily programs for, 83, 86-88, 249-263
 defects of, 10-14
 simple records for, 115-116
 statistics of, 5-7, 232
 Social recognition needed by children, 61
 Social Security Act, 45-46, 152
 Social units, rural, 198-201
 Socializing experiences, 42-43, 49-50, 243
 Social-studies curriculum, 85, 241
 Soil Conservation Service, 166
 Soil erosion, 23-24
 Soil-conservation measures, 32, 237
 Special services, mobile units for, 179-180, 224, 238
 Specimens for the museum, 171-172
 Standardized tests, 96, 97, 100, 101, 103-107, 119
 Standards of personal conduct, 41-42
 State aid, 15, 235
 State Experiment Farms, 31
 Stereoscope, 170
 Stewart, Maxwell S., quoted, 24
 Storing materials, 184-185
 Strang, Ruth, quoted, 104, 151
 Success needed by children, 60-61, 128
 Supervision of schools, 13-14, 236-237
 Supplementary reading materials, 82, 85, 90, 160, 161, 162-167

- Teacher, attitude of, 64-65
 educational requirements of, 12, 13,
 14, 50, 235, 236
 living arrangements for, 13, 15, 77-
 78, 179, 236, 237
 role in community, 50, 147-148,
 202-205, 217-218
 salary of, 11, 12, 13, 235, 236
 tenure of, 12, 13, 236
- Teacherages, 77-78, 179, 236
- Teacher-made tests, 96, 97, 102, 108,
 120
- Teacher-parent conferences, 66, 70,
 121-122, 132, 133, 145
- Teacher-parent relations, 65-66, 121-
 122, 218-219
- Teacher-pupil conferences, 69-70, 120-
 121, 190
- Tennessee State Department of Educa-
 tion, 87, 161, 186, 249-256
- Tests, diagnostic, 101, 107, 119
 essay-type, 96, 102, 108
 for measuring child growth, 96-97
 intelligence, 97-101, 103-105, 119
 objective-type, 96, 97, 102, 108
 reading-readiness, 107
 standardized achievement, 101, 105-
 107, 119
 teacher-made, 96, 97, 102, 108, 120
- Textbooks, place of, 159-162
- Time allotments for subjects, 86-88,
 249-263
- Toilets, inspection of, 80
 sanitary, 142-143
- Tripp, Dr. Thomas Alfred, 200
- Two-teacher school, programs for,
 260-263
- Underprivileged communities, 155-
 156, 240
- Understanding of children basis of dis-
 cipline, 58-64
- United States Department of Agricul-
 ture, 31
- United States Forest Service, 166
- Units of work, integrated, 85-86, 160-
 161
- Urban school statistics, 6
- Ventilating the schoolroom, 140
- Visual aids, 160, 167-172, 237, 242
- Water supply for school, 80, 143-144
- Weber, Julia, quoted, 120-121, 183,
 258-259
- White House Conference on Rural
 Education, 12, 13, 233, 244
- Wofford, Kate V., quoted, 84
- Work experiences, 10, 41, 49, 238
- Workbooks, 66, 80, 161-162

